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Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control

Report of the Secretary-General

Summary

The present report responds to Economic and Social Council decision 2006/248 requesting the Secretary-General to report to the Council at its substantive session of 2008 on progress made by the Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control in the implementation of multisectoral collaboration on tobacco or health.

The report describes the burden of tobacco consumption using recent data from the World Health Organization (WHO) Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2008, then focuses on specific areas of concern for tobacco control where inter-agency collaboration can be important, including exposure to second-hand smoke, particularly the issue of smoking at United Nations premises, issues relating to tobacco growing and alternatives to tobacco, the link between tobacco and development, gender and tobacco and concerns regarding tobacco industry activities and corporate social responsibility. The report also provides an update on the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control and its implementation.

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I. Origins of the Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control and update on its activities

1. In its resolution 1993/79 of 30 July 1993, the Economic and Social Council requested the Secretary-General to establish, under the auspices of the World Health Organization (WHO) and from within existing resources, a focal point among existing institutions of the United Nations system on the subject of multisectoral collaboration on the economic and social aspects of tobacco production and consumption, taking into particular account the serious health consequences of tobacco use. The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) was given this responsibility. Between 1993 and 1998, the focal point submitted three reports to the Secretary-General at the Council's substantive sessions of 1994, 1995 and 1997 (E/1994/83, E/1995/67 and Add.1, and E/1997/62).

2. In 1999, the Secretary-General agreed to the designation of an Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control under the leadership of WHO, thereby replacing the focal point arrangement located at UNCTAD. This decision was taken in order to intensify a joint United Nations response and to strengthen global support for tobacco control. The establishment of the Task Force was endorsed by the Organizational Committee of the Administrative Committee on Coordination, at its first regular session of 1999, held in Geneva on 12 and 13 April 1999 (see ACC/1999/2, sect. VII).

3. In accordance with resolution 1999/56 adopted by the Council at its substantive session of July 1999 endorsing the establishment of the Task Force under WHO leadership, the Secretary-General reported to the Council at its substantive session of 2000 (E/2000/21) on progress made by the Task Force in the implementation of multisectoral collaboration on tobacco or health. Three reports were presented at the substantive sessions of 2002, 2004 and 2006. The present report responds to Council decision 2006/248 requesting the Secretary-General to report to it on the work of the Task Force at its substantive session of July 2008.

4. The members of the Task Force are the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat; the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO); the International Civil Aviation Organization; the International Labour Organization (ILO); the International Monetary Fund (IMF); the secretariat of the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC); the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF); UNCTAD; the United Nations Development Fund for Women; the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP); the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO); the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP); the United Nations Fund for International Partnerships (UNFIP); the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime; the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA); the World Bank; the World Customs Organization; WHO; the World Intellectual Property Organization; and the World Trade Organization.

5. Since 1999, the Task Force has met seven times. The seventh session was held on 21-22 February 2008 at United Nations Headquarters in New York. Representatives of ILO, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNEP, FAO, WHO, the Global Compact, the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the Department for General Assembly and Conference Management and the secretariat of the Convention participated in the session. Representatives from the Permanent

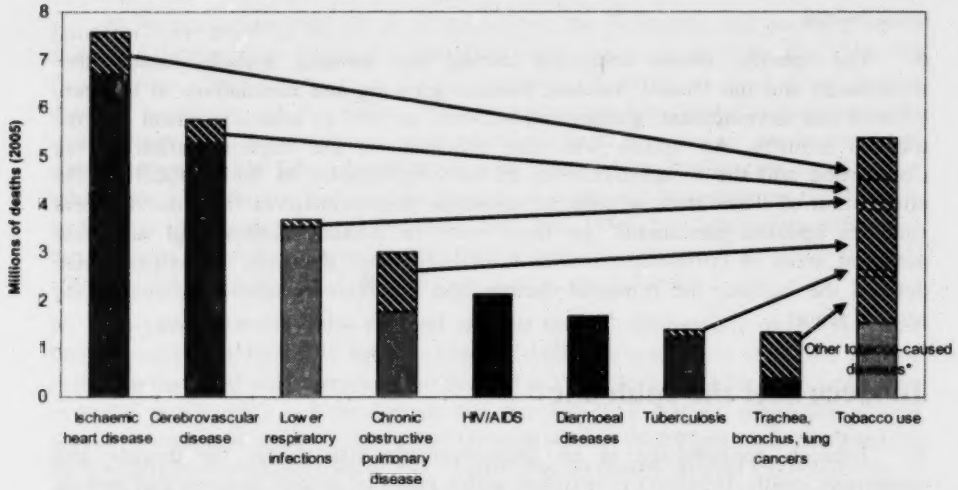
Missions of Belarus, Brazil, China, Egypt, the European Commission, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Pakistan and the Russian Federation participated as observers. Participants discussed a variety of issues related to tobacco for which different agencies can provide an important contribution.

6. The specific issues discussed during the meeting included smoke-free workplaces and the United Nations, tobacco growing and alternatives to tobacco, tobacco and development, gender and tobacco, as well as tobacco control and the tobacco industry. An update was also provided on the implementation of the Convention and the recent outcomes of the negotiations on the protocol on the elimination of illicit trade in tobacco products. Representatives from the different agencies updated participants on their work in tobacco control and discussed potential areas of collaboration with WHO and other agencies. Participants also defined the outline, the principal themes and the main recommendations of the present report.

II. Tobacco use: the epidemic

7. Tobacco consumption is an unquestionable risk factor for disease and consequent death. Tobacco use is linked with a range of serious diseases that include various cancers (lung, trachea, bronchus, mouth, stomach, oesophagus, etc.), cardiovascular (ischaemic heart disease, cerebrovascular disease, etc.), respiratory and digestive diseases (see figure 1). Seventy-one per cent of all cases of trachea, bronchus and lung cancers are due to tobacco use, and up to 42 per cent of deaths from chronic obstructive pulmonary diseases could be prevented if people did not smoke. In 2000 tobacco use was classified as the second major cause of death in the world and the fourth most common risk factor for disease worldwide.

Figure 1
Tobacco use is a risk factor for six of the eight leading causes of death in the world



Note: Hatched areas indicate proportions of deaths that are related to tobacco-use and are coloured according to the column of the respective cause of death.
Source: WHO Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2008.

8. Of the more than 1.3 billion smokers alive today, 650 million — at least half — will eventually be killed by tobacco. Unlike most other causes of death, tobacco kills people during their most productive years. A recent study estimated that smoking caused 5.4 million deaths in 2005. The number of deaths is expected to increase to 8.3 million in 2030 with more than 80 per cent occurring in developing countries. Overall, the share of tobacco-related diseases in the total disease burden worldwide is expected to climb from 2.6 per cent in 1990 to almost 10 per cent in 2015, killing more people than any single disease, including being responsible for 50 per cent more deaths than HIV/AIDS. As will be seen in the next section of the report, tobacco use is not only a health issue. Its implications go beyond the health sector, hence the importance of addressing the problem in a multisectoral manner. In this context, the collaboration of the different agencies is key, particularly in the context of implementation of a set of tobacco control measures that effectively reduce the burden of disease.

9. In February 2008, WHO released a new report on the global tobacco epidemic. The report presents the first comprehensive analysis of global tobacco use and control efforts, based on data from 179 countries. It provides countries with a road map to reverse the devastating global tobacco epidemic that could kill up to 1 billion people by the end of this century. The report outlines the MPOWER package, a set of six key tobacco control measures that reflect and build on the demand reduction measures of the Convention. MPOWER stands for:

– *Monitor tobacco use and prevention policies*. Good monitoring tracks the extent and evolution of the epidemic and indicates how best to tailor policies.

Currently, half of countries — two in three in the developing world — do not have even minimal information about tobacco use.

– *Protect people from tobacco smoke in public places and workplaces*. As there is no safe level of exposure to second-hand tobacco smoke, the only way to safeguard people's health is a total ban on smoking at work and in public places, which has the added benefit of helping tobacco users to give up their habit. Nevertheless, only 5 per cent of the global population is currently protected by smoke-free legislation.

– *Offer help to people who want to stop using tobacco*. Among smokers who are aware of the dangers of tobacco, three out of four want to quit. Counselling and medication can double the chance that a smoker who tries to quit will succeed. Globally, comprehensive national services supporting cessation are available only in nine countries.

– *Warn people about the dangers of tobacco*. Few tobacco users understand the full extent of the risk that tobacco poses to their health. Proven communications strategies and standards, such as graphic warning labels, are infrequently employed to educate the public, even though these are both effective and inexpensive. Pictures are more powerful deterrents than words on tobacco packaging warnings, but only 15 countries, representing 6 per cent of the world's population, mandate pictorial warnings. Just five countries, with 4 per cent of the world's population, meet the highest standards for pack warnings.

– *Enforce bans on tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship*. Widespread advertising falsely associates tobacco with desirable qualities. Studies have found that advertising bans can lower tobacco consumption. Only 5 per cent of the world's population currently lives in countries with comprehensive national bans on tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship.

– *Raise tobacco taxes and prices*. Tobacco taxes are the most effective way to reduce tobacco use, especially among young people and the poor. Only four countries, representing 2 per cent of the world's population, have tax rates greater than 75 per cent[1] of the retail price. In countries with available information, tobacco tax revenues are more than 500 times higher than spending on tobacco control. In low- and middle-income countries, tobacco tax revenues are more than 9,000 and 4,000 times higher than spending on tobacco control, respectively.

10. The implementation of the MPOWER policies is included in the draft WHO action plan for the prevention and control of non-communicable diseases for 2008-2013 as a key element of tobacco control. This action plan will be submitted to the Sixty-first World Health Assembly; it aims to implement the global strategy for the prevention and control of non-communicable diseases established as a priority by the Director-General of WHO.

[1] The 75 per cent tax incidence on retail price has been used in the report as a benchmark, not an optimum level.

III. Tobacco use and production: key areas of concern

A. Smoke-free workplaces

11. Second-hand smoke causes over 30 adverse health conditions, including stroke, heart diseases, vascular diseases and a number of cancers such as lung, uterus, bladder and kidney cancers. According to survey data gathered from youth aged 13-15 years, prevalence of exposure to tobacco smoke can be above 80 per cent in Europe, above 60 per cent in the Americas and around 50 per cent in Africa, South-East Asia, Western Pacific and the Eastern Mediterranean regions. Surveys undertaken in countries and/or other instances where a complete ban on smoking has been implemented show that support for these policies can be very high: close to 90 per cent in Ireland, 80 per cent in Uruguay and above 75 per cent in California and New York City. Experience from countries has also shown that these measures are so widely embraced that over time they become virtually self-enforcing.

12. Based on evidence, the recent WHO policy recommendations on protection from exposure to second-hand smoke state that:

(a) Because there is no safe level of exposure to second-hand smoke, implementation of 100 per cent smoke-free environments is the only strategy proved to provide an acceptable level of protection from the dangers of second-hand smoke exposure;

(b) All indoor workplaces and public places should be required by law to be 100 per cent smoke-free environments;

(c) Smoke-free environment laws should be effectively implemented and enforced, drawing on lessons learned from existing smoke-free jurisdictions; and

(d) Educational strategies should be implemented to reduce second-hand smoke exposure in the home.

13. Another important achievement in the area of smoke-free policies is the development and adoption of the guidelines for implementation of article 8 of the Convention by the second session of the Conference of the Parties to the Convention held in Bangkok, 30 June-2 July 2007. The guidelines aim to assist Parties in meeting their obligations under article 8 on protection from exposure to tobacco smoke, consistent with scientific evidence and best practice worldwide in the implementation of smoke-free measures. They also aim to identify the key elements of legislation necessary to effectively protect people from exposure to tobacco smoke. One underlying consideration for developing these guidelines is that the "duty to protect from tobacco smoke ... is grounded in fundamental human rights and freedoms". Based on the WHO policy recommendations on protection from exposure to second-hand smoke, the guidelines set the principles for the good implementation of smoke-free policies.

14. The guidelines highlight the obligation for Parties "to provide universal protection by ensuring that all indoor public places, all indoor workplaces, all public transport and possibly other (outdoor or quasi-outdoor) public places are free from exposure to second-hand tobacco smoke. No exemptions are justified on the basis of health or law arguments". The guidelines also note that "protection should be provided in all indoor or enclosed workplaces, including motor vehicles used as places of work (for example, taxis, ambulances or delivery vehicles)" and that

Parties "... should act to adopt the most effective protection against exposure wherever the evidence shows that a hazard exists". The guidelines also note the importance and the means for informing, consulting and involving the public about the ban to ensure support and smooth implementation. Elements including enforcement, monitoring and evaluation practices are also described.

15. An interesting new non-governmental organization initiative is the Global Smokefree Partnership, a multipartner initiative formed to promote effective smoke-free air policies worldwide. It is coordinated by the American Cancer Society and the Framework Convention Alliance. It is designed to help practitioners and advocates of smoke-free policies access the evidence for smoke-free policies, request assistance from a network of experts and take action in support of smoke-free policies. Its major partners are leading tobacco control organizations from every region of the world. Its main priority is to promote the implementation of article 8 of the Convention. The other priorities are related to the commitment to manage international campaigns, including one for a smoke-free United Nations. A call for support from public health groups around the world initiated in late 2007 received a strong and immediate response from over 160 groups. Through the partnership, non-governmental organizations are well organized internationally to strongly support a smoke-free United Nations policy.

Economic and Social Council resolution on smoke-free United Nations premises

16. The resolution on smoke-free United Nations premises (2006/42) was adopted by the Member States of the Council at its substantive session of July 2006 (see annex I for the full text of the resolution). The resolution:

- Recommended that the General Assembly, at its sixty-first session, consider the implementation of a complete ban on smoking at all United Nations indoor premises, at Headquarters as well as at regional and country offices throughout the United Nations system, and the implementation of a complete ban on sales of tobacco products at all United Nations premises;
- Also recommended that the General Assembly request the Secretary-General to submit a report on the implementation of the present resolution to the Economic and Social Council at its substantive session of 2008.

17. No action was taken by the General Assembly to consider the Council's recommendation at its sixty-first or sixty-second sessions.

Results of the survey on the status of the smoking ban in the United Nations system

18. During the adoption of the Council's resolution on smoke-free United Nations premises in 2006, some countries requested WHO to look at the extent of existing bans in the different United Nations offices and agencies. Consequently, a survey, targeting the headquarters of the different United Nations entities was undertaken by staff of the WHO Tobacco Free Initiative. Using the United Nations system chart as a basis,[2] an assessment was made of the offices of all entities of the Organization, many of which are co-located in the same premises. The units in charge of the smoking ban in each entity were then identified and contacted by phone and e-mail.

[2] Including agencies, funds, commissions and institutes affiliated with the United Nations.

The survey was designed to collect the following information: status of the ban, originator of the ban (requested, when available, a copy of the decision), date of enactment, likely compliance and occurrence of tobacco sales.

19. In summary, there are more than 50 entities listed in the official United Nations chart but they are located on around 30 premises. The United Nations offices of New York, Geneva, Vienna and Nairobi host a large number of departments and offices of the Secretariat, programmes, funds, subsidiary bodies, commissions, agencies and other institutions. Results of the survey show that 61 per cent of the agencies/premises implemented a complete ban on smoking, while 39 per cent implemented a partial ban. Premises were considered having a complete ban if no smoking was permitted anywhere indoors. Sixty-three per cent of the agencies/premises reported good compliance with the policy, while 26 per cent reported average compliance and 8 per cent weak compliance. For 79 per cent of the agencies/premises, the decision to ban smoking was an administrative decision, while in 21 per cent of cases it was an administrative decision following a request from Member States or staff/staff associations.

20. In 63 per cent of the agencies/premises, tobacco products were not sold on the premises; tobacco sales were allowed on 34 per cent of the agencies/premises. On WHO premises, for example, tobacco sales were permitted until 1971. They were banned afterwards, following a renegotiation of the contract between WHO and the shop operating on its premises. An amendment including a new clause was added to the contract specifically excluding the sale of tobacco products. In the organizations selling tobacco products, the sale is made by outside vendors who have a contractual arrangement with the organization. The survey team believed, based on the experience of WHO and other organizations that used to sell tobacco products on their premises, that changing a contract to exclude the sale of tobacco, when based on a firm decision by the Organization to ban the sale of tobacco products, is not complicated. The concern raised about the renegotiation of the contract with the vendor can only be secondary, given how smoothly the renegotiations have gone in all the cases examined.

21. In conclusion, it is clear that a smoking ban is now a commonly accepted policy in most United Nations entities, with the relevant administrative decisions passing smoothly in most settings. Additionally, banning the sale of tobacco products does not seem to be a complex endeavour. A General Assembly resolution on smoke-free United Nations premises could help strengthen the United Nations stance on the smoking ban in the workplace and ensure that the Organization is in line with the global norms approved by consensus by over 150 Parties to the Convention, representing over 80 per cent of the population.

Action points

22. The global momentum created by the increasing adherence to the right to enjoy smoke-free air should not be missed. The increasing number of countries (such as Bhutan, Estonia, France, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Malta, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Uganda and Uruguay) implementing smoke-free air laws and the adoption of the guidelines for article 8 of the Convention by the Parties, which number over 150, is a very strong sign of support for the implementation of smoke-free places. The United Nations survey on smoking bans shows encouraging results, with the majority of United Nations premises already smoke-free. Member States of the

Council may wish to reiterate their support for smoke-free United Nations premises and request the General Assembly to consider this matter at its sixty-third session.

B. Tobacco growing and alternatives to tobacco

23. FAO estimates of production trends for 2010 show that production is decreasing in developed countries while it is expanding in the developing world. In the early 1970s, developing countries produced little under 60 per cent of the world's tobacco; by 2010, they could be producing more than 80 per cent. This reflects both the lower cost of production and a marked increase in demand in the developing countries.

24. However, it is important to note that profitability of tobacco cultivation cannot be sustained in the long run. At the global level, there is oversupply of tobacco leaves, the global prices are decreasing and the improved production technology of cigarettes is requiring less tobacco leaves to be included in cigarettes.

25. The health and socio-economic impacts of tobacco growing are also issues of concern. Among the health risks associated with tobacco growing are green tobacco sickness and exposure to dangerous pesticides, tobacco dust and injuries. Tobacco growing can also lead to environmental degradation through deforestation, contamination of water supplies because of pesticide use and soil degradation because of the intensive use of fertilizers. Tobacco farmers have very little or no bargaining power on grade and price determination, they have limited opportunities for loans with affordable rates and because they often get loans — including inputs — from the tobacco industry, they have their hands tied and depend on the industry's decision-making. Due to the high labour intensity of the crop, child labour is also found in tobacco farming. Protection of the health of workers should be encouraged and facilitated through government aid and industry enforcement of regulation.

Study group on economically sustainable alternatives to tobacco growing

26. The ad hoc study group on alternative crops, open to interested Parties to the Convention, was established at the first session of the Conference of the Parties in February 2006. The aims of the study group are to explore existing economically viable alternatives for tobacco-related workers, growers and, as the case may be, individual sellers; recommend to the Conference mechanisms to assess the impact over time of the tobacco companies' practices; recommend cost-effective diversification initiatives; and report on initiatives that are being taken at the national level in accordance with article 17 (on provision of support for economically viable alternative activities). The Conference also mandated the study group to work closely with competent international organizations, cooperating with the Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control.

27. The first meeting of the study group was hosted by the Government of Brazil and took place in Brasilia in February 2007. The meeting was attended by 70 participants from 13 countries representing the 6 regions of WHO. Some of the key conclusions of the meeting were that there was insufficient research on the health, environmental and socio-economic impacts of tobacco growing and that there was a need for deeper analysis of the financial factors of crop substitution, particularly targeting the case of small farmers. One day before the first meeting of

the study group, WHO held a one-day public hearing on agricultural diversification and crop alternatives to tobacco on 26 February 2007 in Brasilia. The purpose of the hearing was to ensure that all viewpoints were represented at the event. A total of 30 statements were made by the public health sector, growers, the Government and the tobacco industry.

28. In July 2007, the progress report of the study group was presented to the second session of the Conference. Thereupon, the Conference decided to continue the work of the study group, now called the Study group on economically sustainable alternatives to tobacco growing, in collaboration with relevant intergovernmental organizations, in particular the members of the Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control, such as FAO, ILO and the World Bank, as well as relevant non-governmental organizations accredited as observers to the Conference. The second meeting of the study group will be hosted by the Government of Mexico and will take place from 17 to 19 June 2008 in Mexico City.

29. The aim of this meeting is to expand the scope of work by updating experiences from the first meeting of the study group and introducing recent experiences and cross-national reviews, as well as to move forward the discussion of policy tools conducive to the implementation of economically sustainable alternatives to tobacco growing. The meeting also aims to engage a wider participation from interested Governments, as well as the expertise from specialized intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations.

Action points

30. Tobacco is a lucrative crop but it is costly to grow and its cultivation results in negative health and socio-economic implications. The search for alternative livelihoods — at least for diversification purposes — should continue and options should be given to farmers who wish to switch to other crops. The work of the study group of the Conference is essential and should be encouraged. The technical input and institutional support from specialized intergovernmental agencies, in particular members of the Task Force such as FAO, ILO and the World Bank, is crucial to the progress of the study group and needs to be concretized and sustained over time.

C. Tobacco and development

31. Tobacco and poverty create a vicious circle. While tobacco prevalence is higher among the poor, expenses on tobacco can represent high opportunity costs and can move important resources away from essential needs such as education and health. The increased health expenditure due to disease and deaths attributable to tobacco use is often imposed on poor families, especially in developing countries where health coverage is low. Estimates of the total economic cost of tobacco illnesses and deaths for some developing countries can be as high as US$ 2 billion (2000 data) in the case of Bangladesh.

32. In terms of prevalence of tobacco use, comparable data from the World Health Survey has been compiled for 70 countries from all levels of development. Data in countries such as China and India show that smoking prevalence among the poorest groups for both daily and regular smokers can be sometimes more than twice as high as prevalence among the highest income quintile. This tendency is consistent among low and lower middle-income countries. However, this difference tends to flatten as

the level of development of a country increases. This indicates that tobacco use is a development issue and as countries move up in their income level, inequity in prevalence decreases.

33. The burden on the poor is even more important as data show that in addition to having the highest proportion of users, the poor tend to consume tobacco as much as the rich. In terms of opportunity cost, evidence from countries such as the Philippines shows that poor households spend more on tobacco than on education, health or clothing. In terms of minutes of labour, in Chile, China and India a person needs to work more than three times to buy a pack of local cigarettes in comparison with a kilogram of rice. The difference can be five times or more in countries such as Colombia or Thailand.

34. Building on the work on tobacco and poverty, WHO organized an Intercountry Meeting on Tobacco Control, Poverty Reduction and the Millennium Development Goals in Bangladesh in August 2007 with representatives from Bangladesh, Myanmar and Nepal as well as United Nations agencies based in those countries. The aim of the meeting was to review progress of tobacco control in Bangladesh, Myanmar and Nepal in the context of poverty reduction and the Millennium Development Goals and the status of implementation of Council resolution 2006/42. Participants developed a plan of activities aimed at advancing the work on tobacco and poverty. A recommendation was also made to review the current inclusion of tobacco control activities in the development strategies of countries.

35. It is interesting to note that prevalence of tobacco use has been recently included as an indicator of sustainable development. The Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) mandated the development of indicators of sustainable development in 1995. The indicators serve as points of reference for countries to develop national indicators of sustainable development. The third edition was published by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs in October 2007. The CSD indicators consist of 96 indicators of sustainable development, of which 50 are regarded as core indicators. The indicator on prevalence of tobacco use has been included as a new indicator in the recent publication under "health", which is one of the 15 themes in the framework of the CSD indicators.

36. The indicator is defined as the number of adults of age 15 or over who reported in a nationally representative survey to be a daily smoker of any tobacco product, divided by the number of survey respondents adjusted for non-responses. Countries are invited to consider the indicator on prevalence of tobacco use whenever developing new or revising existing national indicators of sustainable development. As the indicator is a new CSD indicator, the impact of its inclusion on indicators of sustainable development at the country level cannot yet be assessed. However, based on a quick review of national indicator sets, it appears that there is potential to make more use of the indicator in the context of sustainable development, especially in developing countries. The indicator, or a variant of it, is currently used as a sustainable development indicator in a few countries in Europe.

Action points

37. Despite the fact that the current definition of Millennium Development Goals does not refer to the control of non-communicable diseases, including tobacco control, as a risk factor, there is growing recognition that tobacco control is a development issue. The inclusion of tobacco use prevalence as an indicator of

sustainable development in the recent publication of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs is a good illustration of this progress. Preliminary research by WHO shows that tobacco control activities are not yet being included in national poverty reduction strategies. Based on more extensive research on the issue, WHO is planning to develop and propose a strategy to take into account tobacco control in national development programmes. The input from organizations such as UNDP, UNCTAD, the World Bank and IMF will be very helpful.

D. Gender and tobacco

38. In the preamble to the Framework Convention on Tobacco Control there is clear concern raised about tobacco use among women and young girls and the importance of addressing gender-specific risks while developing tobacco control strategies. This provides the legal framework against which the success of addressing gender and tobacco in all other articles of the Convention should be measured. The preamble also recognizes the contribution that women can make to leadership.

39. For years, the industry has conducted research on how to increase sales to women. In many countries, tobacco companies are courting women's groups through funding of domestic violence shelters, promoting beauty pageants and entertainment events. Worldwide, tobacco consumption by males is four to ten times higher than by females. In addition to the fact that women are now the target market of the tobacco industry, which leads to increased prevalence, this is a gender issue because the high rates of male smoking mean that the majority of victims of second-hand smoke are women and children. Also, when men die or are disabled, the economic and caretaking burden falls mainly on women. In tobacco growing and production, women do most of the labour-intensive work of weeding, leaf selection and drying. The same can be said in the case of bidi production in South-East Asia.

Action points

40. Addressing the gender-specific aspect of tobacco use can be done through different approaches. This includes, for example, providing skills development for pregnant women on how to talk to partners about hazards of second-hand smoke in the home; supporting research on how the tobacco industry is creating alliances with women's groups including through women's agricultural unions and tobacco workers' associations; ensuring that rural women, including bidi workers, are included as active participants in the planning, design and implementation of tobacco information, education and communications programmes intended for them.

E. Tobacco control and the tobacco industry

41. The preamble to the Convention recognizes the need to "... be alert to any efforts by the tobacco industry to undermine or subvert tobacco control efforts and the need to be informed of activities of the tobacco industry that have a negative impact on tobacco control efforts ...". Also, in the general obligations set out in article 5, there is a clause calling on Parties to protect the policies from the interests of the tobacco industry.

42. Comprehensive tobacco control policies and programmes are effective in reducing consumption and the industry is trying to thwart their implementation, particularly in developing countries. The various ways the tobacco industry attempts to interfere with, and eventually weaken, tobacco control include promoting self-regulation, drafting and distributing tobacco-friendly sample legislation, subverting legislation and exploiting loopholes or attempting to bribe legislators. With the change in the social environment and in the face of an increased demand for accountability, tobacco companies have been pursuing a corporate social responsibility strategy.

43. WHO has been trying to monitor the activities of the industry in this regard and recently published a report that discusses industry efforts in sponsoring education, health and other philanthropic activities. The challenge now is to disseminate information on the true purpose and scope of activities framed as corporate social responsibility performed by the tobacco industry among policymakers and opinion leaders, as well as the population. It is important to note here that the Conference of the Parties to the Convention has set up a working group to develop guidelines on article 5.3 of the Convention on protection from tobacco industry influence.

44. The working group, composed of 21 Parties to the Convention, has finished its work in developing draft guidelines and will present the document to the Conference of the Parties at its third session. The purpose of these guidelines is to ensure that efforts to protect tobacco control from commercial and other vested interests of the industry are comprehensive and effective. The successful implementation of article 5.3 guidelines, due to their cross-cutting nature, would have an overarching impact on the countries' tobacco control policies and successful implementation of the Convention.

Global Compact Initiative

45. The Global Compact is the world's largest voluntary corporate citizenship initiative. It has two objectives: to make the Global Compact and its principles part of business strategy and operations; and to encourage cooperation among key stakeholders by promoting partnerships in support of United Nations goals. Its ten universal principles are derived from international instruments and address human rights, labour standards, the environment and anti-corruption. The Global Compact is not a regulatory instrument, it is a voluntary initiative with a network-based character. The initiative is a learning and dialogue platform and not a seal of approval for the companies participating in it.

46. It relies on public accountability, transparency and the enlightened self-interest of companies, labour and civil society to initiate and share substantive action in pursuing the principles upon which the Global Compact is based. Importantly, the Global Compact is intended to complement and not substitute government regulation.

47. In support of WHO policies on tobacco, the Global Compact Office tries to dissuade tobacco companies from joining the initiative and does not accept funding from tobacco companies. It has recently made a commitment to not allow tobacco companies to make presentations at any of its global events or to allow them to use the global brand in any other way to raise their profile. However, given its current prerogatives, the Global Compact cannot prevent tobacco companies from joining

the initiative. For example, a couple of tobacco companies were able to join through the local networks of the initiative.

48. Nevertheless, the first requirement of all Global Compact participants is that they should comply with all applicable national and international law. Furthermore, the Global Compact has integrity measures that include a dialogue facilitation process so that if credible allegations are made that a company participating in the initiative is engaged in systematic and egregious abuse of the principles, the matter could be raised with the company and they could be asked to respond to the person or organization raising the matter. In the case of the few tobacco companies participating in the initiative, if an allegation were made that a company was not complying with national tobacco control laws, the process could be invoked by sending a warning to the company.

Action points

49. WHO believes that the tobacco industry and corporate social responsibility are an inherent contradiction. It is unfortunate that some tobacco companies have been able to join the Global Compact given that it is an important corporate citizenship initiative. WHO can continue to monitor the activities of the industry and forward information to the Global Compact when a company infringes national laws relating to tobacco control. This can eventually be used by the Global Compact when the status of a company is reviewed and can be included in the portfolio of the company when its Global Compact participant status is reviewed.

IV. Update on the WHO Framework Convention on Tobacco Control and its implementation

50. As at May 2008, there were 154 Parties to the Convention, representing about 80 per cent of the world population. Two sessions of the Conference of the Parties, which is the governing body of the Convention, have been convened. The third session will be held in South Africa in November 2008. The Tobacco Free Initiative acted as the interim secretariat of the Convention until mid-2007 when the permanent secretariat was operationalized and Haik Nikogosian was appointed its head. The secretariat's functions include, inter alia, supporting the work of the Conference and its subsidiary bodies (e.g., intergovernmental negotiating bodies); providing support to Parties, particularly developing country Parties and Parties with economies in transition; and ensuring coordination with competent international and regional intergovernmental organizations.

51. At the second session of the Conference, decisions included the adoption of the guidelines for implementation of article 8 on protection from exposure to tobacco smoke; further work on the guidelines on product regulation; and the development of new guidelines addressing different articles of the Convention, including article 5.3 on protection from tobacco industry influence, article 11 on packaging and labelling of tobacco products, article 12 on education, communication, training and public awareness, article 13 on tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship. The Conference decided to establish an intergovernmental negotiating body open to all Parties to draft and negotiate a protocol on illicit trade in tobacco products, which will build upon and complement the provisions of article 15 of the Convention on illicit trade in tobacco products.

52. With regards to funding and technical assistance needed for tobacco control implementation, article 26.5 (c) of the Convention provides that "the Conference of the Parties in its first session shall review existing and potential sources and mechanisms of assistance based on a study conducted by the secretariat ...". A review of existing and potential sources and mechanisms of assistance was prepared for the Conference's first session in February 2006. One of its main conclusions was that recognition was needed on the part of the international donor community that tobacco is a fundamental part of the Millennium Development Goals, but it will be up to developing and transition countries to prioritize tobacco control within their country strategies and begin the necessary dialogue with donors.

53. At the end of the session, a decision was adopted to invite the United Nations Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control to provide a report on its activities and possible relevance to increasing accessibility to funding for tobacco control, and an outline of its work in intensifying the United Nations response to tobacco control to the second session of the Conference of the Parties. It also called upon developing country Parties to conduct needs assessments in light of total obligations related to implementation of the Convention, and communicate prioritized needs to development partners.

54. In response to the decision, a report of the Task Force was submitted. It highlighted the multisectoral capacity of this platform but noted that considerable work remained to be completed in the area of collaboration and more concrete joint work between agencies was required. During the session, a document on financial resources and mechanisms of assistance was also submitted. The document provided a methodology for the country needs assessment exercise. It also reiterated that it will remain up to developing country Parties to initiate the necessary dialogue with donors.

55. The decision that arose from the session was to ask the Convention secretariat to actively seek extrabudgetary contributions from Parties and other international donors, including intergovernmental organizations, specifically for the purpose of helping Parties in need to carry out needs assessments. These decisions were reaffirmed during the second session of the Conference and the Convention secretariat was also requested to update the financial mechanisms available to Parties in need.

56. As part of its mandate to increase capacity within countries to help implement the provisions of the Convention, WHO presented the MPOWER package with the publication of the Report on the Global Tobacco Epidemic, 2008. The MPOWER package is a set of cost-effective tobacco controls that build on the demand reduction measures of the Convention; they include: monitor tobacco use and prevention policies; protect people from tobacco smoke; offer help to quit tobacco use; warn about the dangers of tobacco; enforce bans on tobacco advertising, promotion and sponsorship; and raise taxes on tobacco.

57. This report — and future editions — will show countries how to reverse the tobacco epidemic. The reports will also keep track of global, regional and country progress of the fight against the epidemic. One finding of the report is that, while leaders around the globe have begun to recognize that tobacco use is an epidemic that can and must be confronted and stopped, only 5 per cent of the world's population is covered by any one of the key interventions. Another result is that

tobacco tax revenues are more than 500 times higher than expenses on tobacco control.

Outcomes of the first meeting of the intergovernmental negotiating body of the protocol on illicit trade in tobacco products

58. In February 2006, the first session of the Conference of the Parties considered the issue of developing a protocol on illicit trade in tobacco products. The protocol would build upon and complement the provisions of article 15 on illicit trade in tobacco products. At the end of the session, the Conference decided to establish an expert group to prepare a template for a protocol on illicit trade, on the basis of article 15 of the Convention, taking into account the work of competent entities. The template of a protocol on illicit trade developed by the expert group was forwarded to the Conference for consideration at its second session in Bangkok in July 2007. The Conference accepted the template developed by the expert group as the basis for initiating negotiations on a protocol on illicit trade in tobacco products.

59. The Conference decided to establish an intergovernmental negotiating body mandated to develop a protocol and open to all Parties to the Convention. The first session of the intergovernmental negotiating body was held in Geneva from 11 to 16 February 2008. Based on comments by delegations, the chairperson is now in the process of developing a chairperson's text of the protocol for consideration by the intergovernmental negotiating body at its second session, which is expected to take place in October 2008.

V. Potential areas of collaboration with other agencies

60. At the seventh session of the Task Force, the participating agencies discussed the areas in tobacco control for which collaboration can help achieve better results in curbing the epidemic.

Smoke-free workplaces. From an occupational perspective, ILO is actively involved in promoting smoke-free workplaces. The ILO SOLVE educational programme aims to tackle psychosocial problems in the workplace. It addresses smoking as one of its five key psychosocial issues. There were discussions on the development by ILO of a code of practice on smoking in the workplace. However, this project has not yet been launched and actions need to be taken by both WHO and ILO to revive the project. ILO codes of practice are practical guides that are non-binding standards but are often more widely used than other instruments, and can function as the basis for national laws.

Tobacco and youth. Inter-agency collaboration, specifically with UNICEF and UNESCO, in order to raise the profile of tobacco control with a special emphasis on children and young people, is valuable. WHO is currently working on developing recommendations for effective tobacco control policies and strategies for youth and the work will gain from the support of UNICEF and UNESCO. Technical input from UNICEF and UNESCO in the preparations of the World No Tobacco Day 31 May 2008 under the theme "Tobacco-Free Youth" will also be important.

Tobacco and poverty. WHO collaborated with the Division for Sustainable Development in developing a tobacco indicator that was included in the 2007 Indicators of Sustainable Development publication. More collaboration with CSD

can be initiated through partnerships but entry points for such collaboration need to be further explored. Additionally, the development of a strategy for the inclusion of tobacco control activities in development programmes would benefit from the input of UNDP, IMF and the World Bank.

Tobacco growing. There is a need to monitor production trends as consumption is decreasing in the developed world and increasing in developing countries. In addition, there is merit in actively helping countries to find economically viable alternative activities for tobacco growers and those whose livelihoods depend on tobacco growing. The active participation of FAO, ILO and the World Bank in the second meeting of the study group on economically sustainable alternatives to tobacco growing in Mexico in June 2008 will be very important. The input of FAO, ILO and the World Bank in providing ideas for the work of the study group and helping develop the plan of action will be very welcome.

VI. Conclusions and recommendations

61. **The following recommendations are submitted to the Economic and Social Council:**

(a) **Exposure to second-hand smoke needs to be very strictly regulated in order to protect the health of workers. This is becoming the norm in an increasing number of countries implementing strong smoke-free policies. With the growing political support for smoke-free policies and the adoption of the Convention guidelines on article 8 on protection from exposure to tobacco smoke, the Task Force recommends that the United Nations as a whole should adopt a strong stance on the issue and adopt a resolution on smoke-free premises in accordance with Economic and Social Council resolution 2006/42. Therefore, the Task Force suggests that Member States of the Economic and Social Council restate its recommendation to the General Assembly at its upcoming substantive session of 2008 to consider a complete ban on smoking and on sales of tobacco products at United Nations premises.**

(b) **With the establishment of the study group on economically sustainable alternatives to tobacco growing by the Conference of the Parties to the Convention, there is now a platform to facilitate research and work on the challenges raised by tobacco growing. Stronger involvement of agencies such as FAO, ILO and the World Bank to help advance the work of the study group is essential to address the concerns of tobacco-growing developing countries, which can be quite dependent on this crop.**

(c) **As recognized by Economic and Social Council resolution 2004/62, tobacco use does not only have negative health, social and environmental consequences but also undermines efforts towards poverty alleviation. While the Millennium Development Goals do not provide a specific target for reducing non-communicable diseases, including use of tobacco products, the inclusion of tobacco control activities in national development plans of countries is essential. The Task Force particularly encourages the input of UNDP and specialized agencies such as the World Bank and the IMF in the work of WHO to develop a recommended strategy to incorporate tobacco control in development plans.**

(d) The tobacco industry and corporate social responsibility are an inherent contradiction. It is unfortunate that some tobacco companies have been able to join the Global Compact, which is an important corporate citizenship initiative. This status may be perceived as giving them leeway to promote their activities and their image as socially responsible corporations. The Task Force therefore recommends stronger collaboration between WHO and the Global Compact whereby WHO could continue to monitor the activities of the industry. This could then play an important role in the review of the participation status of a company in the Global Compact.

Annex I

Resolution
2006/42
Smoke-free United Nations premises

The Economic and Social Council,

Recalling its resolution 2004/62 of 23 July 2004,

Taking note of the report of the Secretary-General on the Ad Hoc Inter-Agency Task Force on Tobacco Control,[a]

Noting with concern the serious harmful impact of second-hand smoke on the health of non-smokers, which can lead to disease, disability and death,

Acknowledging that second-hand smoke at the workplace is a fully preventable occupational health hazard,

Recalling article 8 of the World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control,[b] entitled "Protection from exposure to tobacco smoke", which states, inter alia, that each party shall adopt and implement measures to provide "protection from exposure to tobacco smoke in indoor workplaces, public transport, indoor places and, as appropriate, other public places",

Emphasizing the importance of protecting the well-being of individuals in their working environments,

1. *Recommends* that the General Assembly, at its sixty-first session, consider the implementation of a complete ban on smoking at all United Nations indoor premises, at Headquarters as well as at regional and country offices throughout the United Nations system, and the implementation of a complete ban on sales of tobacco products at all United Nations premises;

2. *Also recommends* that the General Assembly request the Secretary-General to submit a report on the implementation of the present resolution to the Economic and Social Council at its substantive session of 2008;

3. *Decides* to continue its consideration of the agenda item entitled "Tobacco or Health" at its substantive session of 2008.

42nd plenary meeting
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[a] E/2006/62.
[b] United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 2302, No. 41032.

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Item 3 (a) of the provisional agenda*
Operational activities of the United Nations for international development cooperation: follow-up to policy recommendations of the General Assembly and the Council

Functioning of the resident coordinator system, including costs and benefits

Report of the Secretary-General**

Summary

The present report is submitted in response to the request made by the General Assembly in paragraph 93 of its resolution 62/208 that the Secretary-General submit a report on an annual basis on the functioning of the resident coordinator system, including an analysis of its costs and benefits. This first report provides a broad overview of the resident coordinator system, its organization, modalities and functioning.

The report analyses how the intergovernmental mandate, based mainly on the triennial comprehensive policy reviews of the General Assembly and related resolutions of the Economic and Social Council on operational activities, is being implemented through inter-agency guidance and the evolution of systems, instruments and practices in the functioning of the resident coordinator system and the role of the resident coordinator. In line with the principle that the system, while managed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), is owned by the United Nations development system as a whole, the report pays particular attention to coherence and system-wide participation, as well as accountability mechanisms within the context of national ownership and leadership.

* E/2008/100.

** The delay in the submission of the present report was due to extensive consultations with various organizations.

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The resident coordinator system encompasses all the entities of the United Nations system that carry out operational activities for development in programme countries, regardless of their formal presence in country. Key elements of the system are: (a) at the country level, the United Nations country team, the resident coordinator and his or her office; (b) at the regional level, the regional director and regional manager teams; and (c) at the Headquarters level, the United Nations Development Group and UNDP as the manager of the system.

Significant progress has been made through various measures aimed at: improving programmatic and operational coherence at the country level; system-wide participation, in particular by non-resident agencies; and strengthening accountability. Benefits arising from coherence measures, particularly the use of the common country assessment and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework, as well as other instruments, such as joint programming tools, are described, while benefits from simplification and harmonization measures, such as common premises and services, are evidenced by some available quantitative indicators on savings and efficiencies.

The report provides information on the funding of the resident coordinator system, as a starting point on which to build up an appropriate analysis of the costs and benefits of country-level coordination in future reporting. The funding of the resident coordinator post needs to be understood as an investment for all United Nations coordination activities, including for United Nations security and, where relevant, for humanitarian response and post-conflict transition.

Despite important achievements and progress, there are continuing major challenges to achieving effectiveness and efficiency in operational activities for development through the regional coordinator system, including the need to: respond adequately to the various demands placed on the system, mobilize the expertise of the whole United Nations system to provide support to country development processes; and address divergences in business practices. Some recommendations are put forward to the Council with regard to future reporting on the resident coordinator system.

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I. Introduction

1. The resident coordinator system is a recurrent theme in the analysis of the operational activities for development of the United Nations system and has always been a key chapter in the reports of the Secretary-General to the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council on this subject. In the most recent resolution on the triennial comprehensive policy review of operational activities for development (see General Assembly resolution 62/208), for the first time, the General Assembly requested the Secretary-General to provide an annual report to the Council on the functioning of the resident coordinator system, including an analysis of its costs and benefits.

2. The present report has been prepared in response to that request. It provides the Council with a broad overview of the resident coordinator system, its organization, modalities and functioning. It addresses the benefits of coordination through the resident coordinator system, as well as its costs, and relevant policies set out in the resolutions on the triennial comprehensive policy review. The funding of the resident coordinator system is discussed as a starting point on which to build future reporting on an appropriate analysis of the costs and benefits of country-level coordination.

3. The report does not analyse in detail the recruitment and selection of resident coordinators, since a specific study on human resources issues has been requested by the General Assembly (see resolution 62/208, paras. 94 and 125). Although coordination activities with regard to humanitarian, security management and peacekeeping operations (in relevant country situations) are important mandates of the resident coordinator system, they are not extensively discussed in the present report. Future reports may, however, address these other themes in more depth. Similarly, the ongoing initiative to operationalize the "delivering as one" pilots in eight countries will not be covered as it will be the subject of a separate independent evaluation.

4. Since the present report will be issued on an annual basis, it can be seen as providing an overview of the resident coordinator system, to be followed by a series of complementary thematic assessments on selected topics. The report to be submitted in 2009 will place special emphasis on efforts to improve the selection and training of resident coordinators, as requested by the General Assembly (see resolution 62/208, para. 94). Aside from further analytical work on the costs and benefits of the resident coordinator system, future reports could address such issues as funding, programming, the United Nations system-wide contribution to the resident coordinator system, or coordination in situations of transition from relief to development.

II. Overview of the functioning of the resident coordinator system

A. Intergovernmental mandate and inter-agency guidance

5. The concept of the resident coordinator system originated in 1977 when the General Assembly established the concept of a single official — the resident

coordinator — to coordinate operational activities for development within the United Nations system (see resolution 32/197).

6. The concept, which has evolved over the years, plays an increasingly key role in the reform processes within the system. The importance of the resident coordinator system and its key role for the effective and efficient functioning of the United Nations system at the country level (see resolutions 59/250, para. 53 and 62/208, para. 91) has been consistently affirmed by Member States through the General Assembly's resolutions on the triennial comprehensive policy review. A call for an effectively functioning resident coordinator system is contained in each resolution on the triennial comprehensive policy review since 1992.[1] Guidance on the functioning of the resident coordinator system comes mainly from the Assembly's resolutions that emanate from the triennial comprehensive policy review and related resolutions adopted by the Economic and Social Council for implementation.

7. Efforts to strengthen the resident coordinator were emphasized by the Secretary-General in his report on renewing the United Nations: a programme for reform (see A/51/950, para. 49) measures since 1997 and also by the 2005 World Summit (see resolution 60/1, para. 169). The World Summit called for a strengthened role for the resident coordinator in the implementation of reforms at the country level, including appropriate authority, resources and accountability (see A/51/950, para. 49). In the two most recent resolutions on the triennial comprehensive policy review, Member States set out further measures to strengthen the resident coordinator system, including greater accountability towards host governments and the intergovernmental process as well as within the United Nations system.[2]

8. At the inter-agency level, the guidelines developed by the Administrative Committee for Coordination in 1999[3] have served as the key reference in defining the scope and basic parameters in the functioning of the resident coordinator system. The United Nations Development Group is building on those guidelines reflecting later guidance on the triennial comprehensive policy review and executive decisions by the United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination (CEB) and the United Nations Development Group.

B. Resident coordinator system: basic principles and composition

9. In the context of national ownership and leadership of the development process, the resident coordinator system is the main mechanism to coordinate the

[1] See resolutions 47/199, 50/120, 53/192, 56/201, 59/201 and 62/208.

[2] See resolutions 59/250, paras. 53-61; and 62/208, paras. 89-94, 96, 101, 104 and 105.

[3] An initial set of guidelines, drawn up by the Administrative Committee for Coordination (whose functions have been taken over by the United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination), is contained in the document "Administrative Committee for Coordination statement on the role and functioning of the resident coordinator system" (1995). The guidelines were further elaborated and updated in the document "Administrative Committee for Coordination guidelines on the functioning of the resident coordinator system", which are available on the website of the United Nations Development Group and which are currently being updated.

United Nations system's operational activities for development, as well as emergency, recovery and transition in programme countries.

10. While the resident coordinator system is aimed at country-level coordination, the management of the system involves system-wide oversight and support mechanisms at the Headquarters and regional levels.

11. Two overarching principles underline the functioning of the resident coordinator system. The first principle relates to national ownership and leadership of the national development process. Operational activities of the United Nations system are carried out at the request and in accordance with the policies and priorities of Governments. National Governments have the primary responsibility for the coordination of all external assistance, including that received from the United Nations system. The resident coordinator system assists national Governments in achieving their national development plans and strategies and in carrying out their responsibility for the follow-up to major United Nations international conferences and summits by facilitating coherent, coordinated and efficient United Nations system support at the field level.

12. The second principle is that the resident coordinator system is owned by the United Nations development system as a whole and that its functioning should be participatory, collegial and accountable.

C. The resident coordinator

13. As reaffirmed by the General Assembly, in its resolution 62/208, the resident coordinator assumes a central role in making possible the coordination of the operational activities for development of the United Nations system at the country level. He or she ensures that those activities are in line with national development priorities, the mandates and objectives of the United Nations system organizations and the principles and policy guidance on operational activities for development. The resident coordinator is responsible for developing a multidisciplinary dimension in the assistance provided by the United Nations system to the country, resting on the internationally agreed development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals. The resident coordinator is also responsible for ensuring that national Governments have access to the full range of United Nations system expertise. He or she is expected to make arrangements for dealing with those organizations of the system without field representational offices, taking into account the special relationship between certain United Nations system agency structures and civil society. In close collaboration with the United Nations country team, the resident coordinator is expected to formulate an annual workplan of the team as a framework for concerted activities of the United Nations system at the country level. The resident coordinator is also expected to mobilize resources for the United Nations development system as a whole at the country level (see resolution 59/250, para. 61).

14. Under normal circumstances, the resident coordinator is the designated representative of the Secretary-General and leads the United Nations country team. The team is comprised of representatives of the United Nations funds and programmes, the specialized agencies and other United Nations entities accredited to a given country. All members of the team have a dual role, both as representatives of their respective organization and as members of the resident coordinator system,

and they are expected to provide their full support to the effective functioning of both. The Bretton Woods institutions actively participate in the work of the United Nations country team in most countries. The country coordinator of the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), who has overall responsibility for such activities at the country level, operates within the resident coordinator system and is a full member of the United Nations country team.

15. The resident coordinator also normally coordinates international humanitarian assistance at the country level in support of government efforts. He or she may be designated as country humanitarian coordinator by the emergency relief coordinator in consultation with the Inter-Agency Standing Committee on humanitarian affairs. If a Special Representative of the Secretary-General is appointed to an integrated peacekeeping mission, the resident/humanitarian coordinator may function as the Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary-General under the overall authority of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General, with responsibility for the coordination of development and humanitarian assistance, including recovery. The resident coordinator is also normally appointed as the designated official for United Nations security, unless there is a more senior United Nations official resident in the country. In this capacity, he or she is accountable to the Secretary-General, through the Under-Secretary-General for Safety and Security, for the security of personnel employed by the United Nations system organizations and their dependants in the country. The designated official is responsible and accountable for ensuring that the goal of the United Nations security management system is met in the country.

16. The responsibilities of the resident coordinator, including as humanitarian coordinator and designated official, are contained in the job description for resident coordinator annexed to the Administrative Committee for Coordination guidelines of 1999.

17. The resident coordinator reports to the Secretary-General through the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Administrator as Chair of the United Nations Development Group. The delineation of the responsibilities of the resident coordinator as leader of the United Nations country team, on the one hand, and his or her role as UNDP representative, on the other, is being clarified in the update of the job description for resident coordinator. To make sure that the resident coordinator is more fully available for coordination functions and to avoid conflicts of interest, the General Assembly requested UNDP to appoint a country director to run its core activities, including its fund-raising, especially in countries with large country teams and complex coordination situations, or in situations of complex emergencies. As of May 2008, 49 country director posts have been established, and 41 have been filled.[4]

18. The resident coordinator, supported by the United Nations country team, is expected to report to national authorities on progress made against results agreed in the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (see resolution 62/208, para. 96).

19. The responsibilities and tasks of the resident coordinator in leading the United Nations country team have increased considerably over time. The growing attention to system-wide coherence and coordination, the increasing complexity of issues and

[4] UNDP aims to establish 50 country director posts by 2010.

the multidisciplinary approach needed in many instances have led to an increased demand for an effective and efficient resident coordinator system.

D. Global and regional oversight and management of the resident coordinator system, support and accountability instruments

Policy and management

20. Various Headquarters-based inter-agency mechanisms provide guidance to the resident coordinator and the resident coordinator system on implementing the internationally agreed development goals and on achieving coherence, operational efficiency, and accountability under national ownership and leadership. In October 2007, the United Nations Development Group was brought into the framework of the structure of CEB. This move established a more systematic reporting link by UNDP as manager of the resident coordinator system to CEB and the Secretary-General. It also brought the resident coordinator system under a fuller system-wide ownership.

The United Nations System Chief Executives Board for Coordination and the United Nations Development Group

21. CEB and its three pillars, the High-level Committee on Programmes, the High-level Committee on Management, and the United Nations Development Group, ensure a consistent system-wide approach to the work of the resident coordinator system. The United Nations Development Group is the mechanism that provides collective guidance to United Nations country teams on operational activities for development. The High-level Committee on Programmes focuses on United Nations system coherence on thematic policies, while the United Nations Development Group focuses on translating those policies into operational guidance and develops tools for United Nations country teams. The High-level Committee on Management covers management issues of relevance to the entire United Nations system, while the United Nations Development Group focuses on managerial and administrative aspects of country operations. The High-level Committee on Management and the United Nations Development Group work jointly as appropriate. CEB reports to the Economic and Social Council.

22. The United Nations Development Group Resident Coordinator Issues Group supports the management of the resident coordinator system. Within the updated framework for the management of the system,[5] ongoing initiatives of the Working Group include the establishment of an accountability framework for the resident coordinator system, with guidance on working relations (or code of conduct) and development of a dispute resolution mechanism; as well as enhancement of (a) the resident coordinator job description; (b) a resident coordinator/United Nations country team performance appraisal system; (c) the resident coordinator recruitment and selection system; and (d) the orientation and training for resident coordinators, covering its multiple functions.

[5] See "Principles for enhancing the leadership role of the resident coordinator for United Nations operational activities for development and accountability framework of the resident coordinator system".

23. The United Nations Development Group is providing increasing support to United Nations country teams through regional director/management teams. The teams have two core functions: (a) strategic guidance and support to programme development/implementation and quality assurance of the United Nations country teams' major United Nations Development Assistance Framework outcomes; and (b) performance management and oversight of resident coordinators/United Nations country teams. Membership in the teams comprises representatives of United Nations system funds and programmes, specialized agencies and other United Nations system agencies with country-level operational activities.

24. Support to all mechanisms of the United Nations Development Group is provided by its Office, which was recently renamed the Development Operations Coordination Office (with effect from June 2008). The Development Operations Coordination Office is the main support structure that provides continuing assistance to resident coordinators and the resident coordinator system.

The United Nations Development Programme as manager of the resident coordinator system

25. The management of the resident coordinator system remains anchored in UNDP, with management oversight the responsibility of the UNDP Administrator. The last two resolutions on the triennial comprehensive policy review reaffirmed the role of UNDP as the manager of the system. As chair of the United Nations Development Group, the UNDP Administrator reports to the Secretary-General, in his role as the chair of CEB, on the functioning of the resident coordinator system.

Substantive and advisory support to the resident coordinator system

26. The resident coordinator system draws on various types of substantive support from the United Nations development system. Several working groups and task teams of the United Nations Development Group provide advisory services and guidance on cross-cutting themes emanating from United Nations international conferences and system-wide approaches, as well as on programming processes. To underpin the support of the Organization to national capacity development a wide variety of support is provided, including, on common country assessment and United Nations Development Assistance Framework processes, capacity development, mainstreaming the Millennium Development Goals in poverty reduction strategy papers, Millennium Development Goal support plans, new aid modalities, civil society engagement, human rights-based approaches (including at work), gender equality and women's empowerment performance indicators, mainstreaming disaster risk reduction and responding to indigenous peoples' issues.

27. Thematic and functional electronic networks also support the United Nations country teams through discussion forums and exchanges of experiences, such as the coordination practice network and the Millennium Development Goal policy advisory network.

28. A programme of training is in place for United Nations country teams going through the United Nations Development Assistance Framework process on, for example, results-based management. Other thematic training courses draw on the specific expertise of funds, programmes and agencies. They include a module on trade, with support from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, and one on employment and decent work, with support from the International

Labour Organization. The Development Operations Coordination Office provides $3 million per annum from donor contributions to the United Nations System Staff College and to United Nations country teams to fund training.

Accountability framework

29. The resident coordinator system enhances the accountability of the United Nations system to the host Country through reporting by the resident coordinator to national authorities on the results of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (see resolution 62/208, para. 96) — in line with national ownership and leadership of programming processes and through the alignment of the Framework with national priorities. It also enhances the system's accountability to intergovernmental bodies, including the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council, for example, through the triennial comprehensive policy review and the present report.

30. Moreover, the resident coordinator system enhances accountability within the United Nations system. The building blocks of this accountability are: (a) the United Nations Development Assistance Framework results matrix; (b) the annual United Nations country team workplan; and (c) the performance appraisal system.

31. The United Nations country team workplan is the key instrument for organizing country coordination activities. The workplan is expected to identify key planned coordination actions, building mainly on the United Nations Development Assistance Framework results matrix. It is prepared in line with guidance from the triennial comprehensive policy review and related initiatives of CEB and the United Nations Development Group.

32. The results achieved by the resident coordinator and the United Nations country team are set out in an annual report. The resident coordinator submits the report to the Secretary-General (as Chair of CEB) through the UNDP Administrator. As requested by the triennial comprehensive policy review, resident coordinators will report to host Governments on the progress of the United Nations country team towards the United Nations Development Assistance Framework results.

33. In 2006, a performance appraisal system was introduced on a pilot basis for the mutual appraisal of the performance of the resident coordinator and the members of the United Nations country team against their agreed workplan. The system has been enhanced and is now being rolled out for the 2007 performance appraisal. The system comprises three broad components:

(a) The self-assessment by the resident coordinator and members of the United Nations country team of their own results (one set of results is assessed for the resident coordinator/humanitarian coordinator/designated official and another set for the team as a collective entity). In order to raise the accountability for individual members of the country team, reporting on results also shows how individual agency representatives led the team to produce a common result on its behalf. Results for the humanitarian response are based on the Emergency Relief Coordinator/Humanitarian Coordinator compact;

(b) The 180-degree competency assessment tool which measures team behaviours and competencies;

(c) United Nations system feedback on the performance the resident coordinator: the Emergency Relief Coordinator/Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs provides feedback on the resident coordinator/humanitarian coordinator humanitarian function; the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on the Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary-General; the Department for Safety and Security on the designated official function, in accordance with criteria drawn from the United Nations security management system; and CEB members provide feedback on the resident coordinator/humanitarian coordinator/designated official function, as relevant to agency mandates.

34. The appraisals are submitted to the regional director/manager teams which conduct their own appraisal and provide feedback to the resident coordinator and the United Nations country team. This review does not replace the internal review process within any one agency of its country representative, but rather serves as an input.

35. A number of challenges still need to be addressed to improve the system and process. These include: (a) the need to lighten the process while maintaining the quality of appraisal; (b) more systematic links between the resident coordinator/United Nations country team performance appraisal vis-à-vis the systems of individual organizations; (c) further developing the regional director/manager team appraisal, including enhancing system-wide participation while ensuring manageability; and (d) a more systematic follow-up to the appraisals to address performance gaps.

E. Country-level coordination mechanisms

United Nations country team

36. At the country level, the resident coordinator system functions mainly through the United Nations country team. Decision-making on collective actions or issues of system-wide concern takes place at the meetings of the team, led by the resident coordinator. Members of the country team include representatives of United Nations organizations who are duly accredited to the Government, have operational programmes, a country budget and accountability for team performance and United Nations country team goals.

37. In most countries, the Bretton Woods institutions actively participate in the work of the United Nations country team. Other organizations, such as regional development banks, may be invited by the resident coordinator to participate. In emergency situations, the vehicle for humanitarian coordination is the humanitarian country team, which comprises United Nations country team members, representatives of the International Organization for Migration, non-governmental organizations and the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement.

Resident coordinator office

38. With the increasing demands and complexity of resident coordinator functions and the expectations of greater effectiveness, resident coordinators have been provided with support staff who comprise the resident coordinator office, constituting a minimum of one person, and an average of three persons. In complex,

post-crisis settings, the number of staff might increase with the inclusion of international and national professionals, such as monitoring and evaluation advisers, specialists in communications and security advisers, especially where support cannot be provided from existing country team capacities. The composition of a resident coordinator office varies depending on the country context.

Theme groups

39. United Nations country teams provide support to national coordination efforts under Government leadership, in which other major partners are present. Specific coordination tasks are organized by substantive area and are assigned to theme groups or working/cluster groups, or task forces, as needed, usually led by the agency with the relevant mandate and expertise.

40. The thematic groups are an important mechanism for undertaking the common country assessment or country analytic work, the preparation of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework, implementation, and monitoring of joint initiatives. The groups are increasingly established in line with the outcome areas of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework and cross-cutting themes. Common theme groups are HIV/AIDS and gender. Other groups might be organized on disaster management, food security, health, the Millennium Development Goals and aid coordination, among others. Groups are also often organized on operations, management and communications.

F. System-wide participation in the resident coordinator system

41. Participation by organizations of the United Nations development system in the resident coordinator system is premised by the principle that the system is owned by the United Nations development system as a whole and that its functioning is participatory, collegial and accountable. In paragraph 13 of its resolution 62/208, the General Assembly stressed that improvement of coordination and coherence at the country level should be undertaken in a manner that recognizes the respective mandates and roles and enhances the effective utilization of resources and the unique expertise of all United Nations funds, programmes and specialized agencies.

42. Coordination and participation by United Nations system organizations take place at the Headquarters, regional and country levels, with regard to the functions, organization and management of the resident coordinator system, as described above.

Participation in global oversight, guidance and management

43. There is wide participation by agencies in the formulation of operational policies and guidelines on resident coordinator system through the United Nations Development Group Resident Coordinator Issues Group. Participation in the group is open to all organizations belonging to the United Nations Development Group.

44. The participation of agencies with regard to the performance appraisal process as described above is managed through the regional director/manager team mechanism at the regional level and within the United Nations country team.

Participation in the selection of resident coordinators

45. United Nations agencies also participate in the resident coordinator selection process. They are encouraged to nominate qualified officers to be assessed for the candidate pool. They might also participate in identifying suitable candidates for such posts through the Inter-Agency Advisory Panel. Currently, 11 agencies with sufficient field operational responsibilities sit on the Panel.

46. While most resident coordinators have historically come from UNDP, there has been a significant increase in the proportion of regional coordinators that have come from other agencies, as a result of efforts by the United Nations Development Group to diversify the talent pool. Between 2001 and 2003, 36 per cent of candidates undergoing assessment as potential resident coordinators were from organizations other than UNDP. By 2008, this percentage had increased to 64 per cent. Between 2001 and April 2008, the number of non-UNDP resident coordinators approved by the Secretary-General and host Governments more than doubled, from 13 to 30 per cent. Staff from specialized agencies account for roughly 5 per cent of serving resident coordinators.

47. A number of factors affect the effort to broaden the base of recruitment of resident coordinators from various parts of the United Nations system. Those factors relate to the human resources policies within and across organizations, inter-agency mobility, the high costs involved in preparing staff for resident coordinator posts, problems of reintegration into the home organization after an assignment as resident coordinator, the low classification of resident coordinator and resident/humanitarian coordinator posts considering the complexity of the job, as well as the associated incentive package. Approaches to address those issues are being discussed in the Resident Coordinator Issues Group.

48. Steps are being undertaken to improve the training of resident/humanitarian coordinators to enhance their knowledge of other agencies (especially non-resident and specialized), including through briefings by all agencies to new resident coordinators. Nevertheless, a concern remains that resident coordinators are not sufficiently familiar with the roles and mandates of specialized and non-resident agencies.

Agency participation at the country level

49. The General Assembly has consistently called for improving system-wide participation of United Nations development organizations in country-level operational activities for development to optimize support to national development efforts and to facilitate the access of developing countries to the services available within the system. Accordingly, the Assembly has called for measures to promote greater inclusiveness and participation, including through promotion, decentralization, the delegation of authority and multi-year programming as well as the use of advanced information and communication technology (see resolutions 59/250, paras. 43-45 and 57; and 62/208, para. 95).

50. Coordination and agency participation take place in both programming and management aspects of the functioning of the United Nations country team. Participation may be influenced by a number of factors, such as whether or not the agency is physically present, with country operations and operational programmes;

the size and nature of that presence; the related budget; and resources that the agency can contribute to sustain coordination and joint efforts.

Participation of non-resident agencies

51. A recent analysis by the United Nations Development Group showed that, out of a group of 24 agencies, 13 were non-resident (50 per cent or more) in a majority of programme countries. Those agencies provided specialized support from regional and Headquarters offices.

52. The participation of non-resident agencies in the implementation of development cooperation becomes visible when they provide expertise and management services to field-level activities and contribute some funding. With increasing opportunities and demands for participation in sector-wide approaches and other new aid modalities, non-resident agencies are entering into institutionalized cooperation agreements with resident agencies (or have developed some form of country presence). Those agreements cover arrangements, such as the posting of a liaison officer in the country, and modalities of cooperation around global initiatives. Some non-resident agencies have multipartner initiatives, such as those with the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (for example, UNCTAD on the Integrated Framework for Trade-related Technical Assistance to Least Developed Countries).

53. Other non-resident agencies have national focal points (from Government host agencies or agency-employed project coordinators). Some agencies have taken concrete steps to decentralize their presence. Since 2004 the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) has established 13 desks within UNDP. On the basis of a 2002 memorandum of understanding between UNDP and the United Nations Human Settlements Programme, 40 Habitat Programme Managers are now currently in place. The International Fund for Agricultural Development has been opening operational coordination units in a number of countries under arrangements with the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and UNDP as host organizations.

54. In those cases when they do not have country offices, ILO and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have a bilateral strategic partnership with UNDP. This has allowed resident coordinators to be informed of the potential of the Education for All Global Action Plan as a framework for coordination in education. It also enabled the promotion of a toolkit on mainstreaming employment and decent work adopted by CEB in 2007. The regional commissions also signed a cooperation framework agreement with UNDP in 2007, identifying eight areas of collaboration, including analytical and planning exercises by United Nations country teams, and the coordination of advisory services at the country level.

55. In 2005, a United Nations Development Group working group on non-resident agencies took stock of the level of participation of such agencies in country-level development activities. The Working Group concluded that there needed to be a more consistent approach to ensure that all of the United Nations system's expertise is made available to national Governments at the country level. Some 15 entities that took part in the United Nations Development Group initiative have committed to pursue measures as part of a United Nations development system action plan on non-resident agencies. All have committed to designate focal points to liaise with

resident coordinator offices, and to be part of United Nations country teams when such expertise is deemed useful to national partners and when conditions allow them to do so. Staff in resident coordinator offices have also been designated as focal points to communicate with non-resident agencies. In 2007, UNDP created 14 national non-resident agency coordination analyst posts on a pilot basis, in response to the non-resident agency action plan, 12 of which have been filled. If the results are positive, the question of funding similar posts in other countries will need to be addressed.

III. Country-level coordination: activities, instruments and value added

A. Coordination for development

56. The benefits of coordination of the United Nations system's operational activities for development relate primarily to supporting the national development process by: (a) producing results to enhance the strategic impact of the United Nations system's contribution to national plans and priorities; and (b) improving the system's operational efficiency and reducing transaction costs for national partners, mainly through the simplification and harmonization of programming processes and business practices.

57. While the core function of the resident coordinator system in most countries is to coordinate development results, the system is also responsible for ensuring the security of the United Nations country presence in support of efforts to coordinate humanitarian preparedness for and response to emergencies and for ensuring a seamless transition from humanitarian relief to long-term development.

58. In order to bring the full potential of coordination to bear on national development efforts, the use of common instruments and tools has played an important role in United Nations country teams' efforts to improve country-level coherence. There are three major instruments in use: (a) the common country assessment; (b) the United Nations Development Assistance Framework and its results framework; and (c) joint programming and, where relevant, joint programmes. Other instruments developed to supplement them are the harmonized approach to cash transfer and multi-donor trust funds.[6]

59. The General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council have been informed on a regular basis about the nature and performance of those tools since 1998. The Assembly, in the triennial comprehensive policy reviews in 2004 and 2007, recognized the value added of the common country assessment as a common instrument to analyse the national development situation and to identify key development issues, with particular attention to the Millennium Development Goals

[6] The harmonized approach to cash transfer is a new risk-management approach used by the four major United Nations funds and programme agencies for transferring cash to implementing partners in ways suited to country context and building these partners' capacity for high-quality financial management. Multi-donor trust fund are funding instruments through which donors pool resources to support national priorities and facilitate United Nations agencies to work and deliver in close coordination and collaboration. Multi-donor trust funds have been increasingly used in humanitarian, recovery and transition situations.

and other internationally agreed development goals. In its resolution 62/208, the General Assembly recalled the potential of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework, as the collective, coherent and integrated programming and monitoring framework for the operations of the United Nations development system at the country level, bringing increased opportunities for joint initiatives, including joint programming, and urged the United Nations development system to fully utilize such opportunities in the interest of enhancing aid efficiency and aid effectiveness.

60. Those tools have generated progress with the harmonization of programming cycles among those United Nations entities with multi-year programming cycles, in particular UNDP, UNFPA, the World Food Programme (WFP) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in over 110 countries (as of February 2007). This harmonization remains a challenge for the larger set of United Nations entities with separate governing bodies owing to variances in funding frameworks, cycles and modalities.[7] Full integration with national programming processes and systems is still a major challenge for the United Nations development system.

61. Qualitatively, United Nations Development Assistance Frameworks are achieving a better alignment with national development priorities and planning processes and focusing on fewer, more strategic programme outcomes. However, monitoring and evaluation of results need to be strengthened. Moreover, there are still concerns regarding finding an appropriate approach to developing a United Nations Development Assistance Framework that is both strategically focused and inclusive. Some countries may have special needs that smaller or more specialized United Nations agencies may need to support and which may not be addressed jointly nor with large funding contributions. Such contributions are acknowledged and included in the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (but not in the common results matrix).

62. Once the United Nations Development Assistance Framework has been completed and endorsed by the Government, the agencies further articulate how they will contribute to the Framework's outcomes. Progress is being made among UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA and WFP towards harmonizing the tools that operationalize the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (such as country programme documents, country programme action plans and annual workplans). Some specialized agencies have also evolved their own country programming frameworks or planning tools, such as the country cooperation strategy of WHO; the decent work country programmes of the International Labour Organization; the Integrated Framework for Trade-Related Technical Assistance developed jointly by UNCTAD, the International Trade Centre (ITC), the World Bank, the World Trade Organization and UNDP; the national medium-term priority framework of FAO; and recently, the national education support strategy of UNESCO. It is important that those processes and frameworks are integrated into the United Nations Development Assistance Framework in order to reduce potential duplication and ensure complementarity. The World Bank and the United Nations country team, in many countries, consult closely to ensure complementarity between the country assistance strategy and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework.

[7] See A/62/73-E/2007/52, para. 105.

63. United Nations funds, programmes and specialized agencies are increasingly trying to harmonize agency programme and planning cycles and documentation requirements at the country level. A number of United Nations country teams have taken initiatives to develop more unified country-level processes and common documents, in particular among UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF and WFP.

64. Coordination initiatives intensify around a common agenda during the assessment and planning phases and in humanitarian crises, but tend to slow down during the implementation and monitoring phases. The continued existence of individual agency plans and operational documents may maintain unnecessary transaction costs for national partners, especially where several agencies are supporting the same partner to achieve a shared result. Further work at Headquarters and by United Nations country teams will help further harmonize and integrate agency programming while improving common implementation, monitoring and reporting mechanisms.

65. Joint programmes,[8] as one of the programming modalities to implement the United Nations Development Assistance Framework, are increasingly becoming the modality of operational coordination in certain areas where agencies need to work together. Joint programmes are sets of activities reflected in a common workplan with a budget implemented and funded by at least two United Nations entities, with clearly defined roles.

66. As of March 2008, the United Nations Development Group website contained information on some 428 joint programmes. While they address a considerable variety of themes, the most common themes are: HIV/AIDS; gender; health; poverty reduction; governance and democracy; and Millennium Development Goal measurement and reporting.

67. This type of collaboration may still be cumbersome and time-consuming due to unharmonized funding cycles and financial procedures, variations in cost recovery regimes, administrative rigidities, different delegation of authority or decentralization modalities and differing reporting requirements. Collaboration may take other forms, through harmonization and coordination of parallel programmes under a joint action framework or programme of work, which have also been proven effective.

68. An outstanding example of effective coordination is the United Nations system's response to the potential pandemic of avian and human influenza in 2005-2006. Under a consolidated action plan on avian and human influenza, the United Nations system, led by the United Nations system Influenza Coordinator, established clear coordination structures at all levels and a division of labour and leadership roles among United Nations agencies with the relevant mandates and comparative advantage, namely, FAO on livestock, WHO on health, UNICEF on communications, WFP on contingency planning, and overall joint coordination of partners and funding by UNDP and the World Bank. Clear priorities were defined to help countries put into place their national pandemic preparedness plans. As a result, within two years, 178 national preparedness plans were finalized. At the country level, the resident coordinator system served as a key mechanism that brought

[8] Joint programming refers to joint activities within the full cycle of programming (see resolution 59/250, para. 50).

together not only the United Nations system, but also a wide range of national and international development partners to work together.

69. UNAIDS provides another good example of a framework for coordinated response, with a clear division of labour among the co-sponsoring organizations. It operates under the principles of "three ones" (one national AIDS coordinating authority, one agreed AIDS action framework and one agreed country-level monitoring and evaluation system). In general, United Nations country teams develop an organization-wide response through an integrated implementation support plan supporting the national coordinating authority in carrying out the national plan.

70. As another example, United Nations country team gender theme groups in many countries are developing joint programmes of work under a common framework of support, including working mechanisms for coordinated interface with national coordination structures.

71. In these three examples, the added value of the system is defined by its contribution to the development of holistic frameworks, its expertise and access to knowledge resources, and the convening role it offers (based on the normative and intergovernmental mandate). Given the enabling conditions at the Headquarters and regional levels, the resident coordinator system at the county level is able to function most effectively and coherently.

72. In general, greater coordination and joint efforts (such as annual planning, programmatic coordination, implementation agreements and monitoring and evaluation of programmes), offer several benefits, including:

(a) A collective voice in supporting the formulation, programming and development of public policies, especially in the context of sector-wide approaches;

(b) Increased potential for impact due to more strategically focused and programmatically coherent responses to national priorities;

(c) Increased interactions among United Nations organizations, leading to improved mutual understanding and cooperation;

(d) Optimization of financial, human and material resources;

(e) Increased efficiency by reducing transaction costs for the United Nations and its partners (for example, reduced duplication of activities and fewer meetings).

B. Simplification and harmonization of business practices

73. One way of increasing the benefits of coordination is the implementation of simplification and harmonization measures to reduce the transaction costs of the United Nations development system and its partners. This includes the introduction of measures for the rationalization of the country presence through common premises and co-location; implementation of the joint office model, where appropriate; common shared support services (including security, information technology, telecommunications, travel, banking, and administrative and financial procedures, including procurement) as well as common business units (see resolutions 59/250, para. 36; and 62/208, para. 120). In paragraph 118 of its resolution 62/208, the General Assembly also encouraged that transaction costs be

lowered further by jointly undertaking such activities as missions, analytical work and evaluations.

74. There has not been a systematic measurement and collection of information in terms of the benefits from common or shared premises and services. There are, however, some indications of benefits reported by United Nations country teams. For example, the establishment of a United Nations House in Romania has resulted in savings of $30,000 a month. In the Philippines, travel costs were reduced by 20 per cent by implementing a common arrangement with airlines. In Namibia, the sharing of information technology services resulted in savings of more than $80,000. Joint procurement and importation in Haiti generated savings of 30 per cent in transaction costs. The qualitative benefits of those arrangements include: negotiation of better and more transparent pricing structures with suppliers; increased buying power and time savings in procurement; and improved timeliness in human resources services/recruitment process with common rosters. In the case of United Nations agencies that have hosting arrangements with the Government, the cost-effectiveness as well as the impact on capacity-building within the host agency, need to be assessed vis-à-vis options for co-locating in common premises or United Nations Houses. In the light of security threats to the United Nations system, common premises are currently under review in the case of vulnerable situations.

75. In 2004, the United Nations Development Group conducted a study on the establishment of joint offices, with the first such office established in Cape Verde in 2006.[9] The key principles of a joint office model are: one common programme for the funds and programme; one empowered leader (the Resident Coordinator); one team (supporting a common programme); and shared/harmonized support services, to the extent feasible. Efforts in that direction are currently focused on the experiences of the programme pilot countries on "delivering as one".

IV. Funding of the resident coordinator system

A. Sources, allocation and uses

United Nations Development Programme core resources

76. As the organization that manages and funds the resident coordinator system, UNDP funds the basic coordination capacities of the United Nations. Between 2004 and 2007, total core resources in UNDP attributed to the resident coordinator function was on average $67.7 million, with minimal increments during 2004-2006. In 2007, based on expenditures, the amount rose to $74.1 million — an 11 per cent increase from 2006. On the basis of a workload survey conducted and elaborated upon in the budget submission of UNDP to its Executive Board, an average of about 26 per cent from 2004 to 2007 and 28 per cent in 2008 and 2009 of UNDP country office costs was or will be attributed to support of operational activities of the United Nations. These costs include the resident coordinator and his or her immediate support staff (secretary, driver), communications and finance, and general administrative services, as well as other support provided to resident and non-resident agencies. Since 2007, on a pilot basis, UNDP also includes dedicated

[9] The aim of the joint office model is to rationalize United Nations representation and operations in countries with a limited United Nations presence.

support to non-resident agencies through the 14 new national coordination analyst posts. The cost of the operational support provided by UNDP to the resident coordinator system over the past four years (2004-2007) is on average almost $400,000 per country (based on 136 countries).

77. In its decision 95/23, the UNDP Executive Board earmarked additional resources within the Programme's financial framework for programme support to the resident coordinator system. Those resources are referred to as "support to the resident coordinator funds" and serve as seed money to strengthen country-level coordination and allow resident coordinators to respond quickly to opportunities for system-wide collaboration in response to national priorities. The total amount allocated for the period 2006-2007 was on average $13.5 million per year. The actual amount allocated per country, which averages $98,700, varies from country to country, but those differences are small in relative terms.

Non-core resources

78. In addition to the core budget allocation, additional resources have been mobilized since 2001 by UNDP, through the United Nations Development Group Office, from bilateral donors, in support of country coordination capacity (75 per cent) and United Nations Development Group activities at the Headquarters and regional levels (25 per cent). Donor contributions channelled through a project entitled "United Nations country coordination fund" complement UNDP core resources for the resident coordinator system. The funds are used to support the capacity enhancement of United Nations country teams to function coherently, including through staff capacity, training, use of new tools and procedures, and improvement of communications and knowledge management. Through the United Nations country coordination fund, additional support has also been mobilized for coordination activities in countries in post-crisis transition as well as for "delivering as one" pilot countries (about $250,000 per country). The country coordination fund country level expenditures in 2007 were $6.82 million, an increase of about 22 per cent over 2006. Expenditures from the country coordination fund in 2006-2007 account for approximately 43 per cent of total non-core resources in support of the resident coordinator system. At the country level, the country coordination fund allocation varies from country to country, but on an average basis (2006-2007), the country coordination fund supplement per country (excluding for transition) was between $15,000 and $26,000.

79. For 2004-2007, non-core resources have, on average, accounted for around 14 per cent of total resources for support for the resident coordinator system, including for Headquarters.

Table
Resident coordinator system funding (expenditures)
(United States dollars)

Funding source	*2004*	*2005*	*2006*	*2007*
A. UNDP (regular funds)				
UNDP operational support to the resident coordinator system,[a] including support to non-resident agencies	51 330	51 330	53 579	614 313[b]
Support to resident coordinator funds (allocated and monitored through the Development Group Office)	13 527	14 264	13 193	12 687
Total UNDP regular funds	**64 857**	**65 594**	**66 772**	**74 118**
(Percentage of total resident coordinator system funding)	(91.0)	(88.0)	(84.0)	(82.0)
B. UNDP/Development Group Office (funds raised from donors through the United Nations country coordination fund)				
Support through Headquarters/United Nations System Staff College (including "delivering as one" pilots)	5 300	6 961	7 191	9 445
Allocated to Resident Coordinator offices				
Support to United Nations country teams	—	—	2 063	3 498
Additional post-crisis to support United Nations country teams	1 225	2 119	3 531	3 325
Subtotal for United Nations country teams	**1 225**	**2 119**	**5 594**	**6 823**
(Percentage of donor funding)	(18.8)	(23.3)	(43.8)	(42.0)
Total donor contributions	**6 525**	**9 080**	**12 785**	**16 268**
(Percentage of total resident coordinator system funding)	(9.1)	(12.1)	(16.1)	(18.4)
Total resident coordinator system support	**71 382**	**74 674**	**79 557**	**90 386**
Average spending on a per country basis (excluding for transition and "delivering as one" pilots), based on 136 countries				
UNDP operational support to the resident coordinator system, including support to non-resident agencies	383.06	377.42	393.96	451.69

Funding source	*2004*	*2005*	*2006*	*2007*
Support to resident coordinator funds and country coordination fund	99.46	104.88	112.18	119.01
Total	**482.52**	**482.30**	**506.14**	**570.71**

[a] This amount includes the aggregated cost of UNDP support to the "coordination" function at the country office level (including the resident coordinator salary portion and operational and administrative support costs) and represents about 26 per cent of the UNDP country office cost.

[b] For 2007, only estimated costs were available at the writing of the present report.

Funding of other coordination support functions

80. In addition to the above funds supported by UNDP and donors, each of the coordination mechanisms within the United Nations system, the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs and the Department of Safety and Security, provide dedicated coordination support to the United Nations country team and the resident coordinator for humanitarian coordination and security, respectively. Where a resident coordinator also serves as Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary-General, the funding of the resident coordinator function is shared between the United Nations and UNDP, with the United Nations reimbursing UNDP for 50 per cent of the salary and the allowances of the resident coordinator. The United Nations also provides funding for general administrative and security staff for the office of the resident coordinator as Deputy Special Representative of the Secretary-General.

81. It is interesting to compare the costs of the resident coordinator system with those of the other United Nations coordination entities, such as the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs and UNAIDS, although the costs of the country-level coordination expenditures of those different entities may not be directly comparable owing to the diversity of their structures, functions and mandates. In 2006, the cost for the resident coordinator system was approximately $0.506 million (of which 40 per cent was for the salary of the resident coordinator and his or her immediate support), while the cost for the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs/humanitarian coordination was on average $3.67 million per country, and for UNAIDS $0.328 million.

Country allocation and uses of support to resident coordinators funds and country coordination fund

82. The Development Group Office allocates resources from support to the resident coordinators and country coordination fund to resident coordinators. The activities that are supported fall into two major categories: (a) more integrated programming and advocacy; and (b) common premises and services. The bulk of the funds are used for coordination staff and key functions of the Office of the Resident Coordinator, such as the United Nations country team's strategic planning, monitoring and reporting on results and expenditures; and effective communication. In order to receive support to resident coordinators funds, activities must meet one of the following criteria: (a) clear linkage to better coordinated operational activities; and/or (b) innovativeness and a catalytic effect on joint United Nations system activities.

83. Examples of activities that qualify for support to the resident coordinators funding are: advocacy/campaigns and communications activities on the Millennium Development Goals; the development of monitoring and evaluation systems and poverty monitoring databases; improvements to country-level coordination, including through processes related to the common country assessment/United Nations Development Assistance Framework; provision of support to thematic groups; collaboration on common services and premises; harmonization and simplification of business practices; and strengthening of the United Nations country team coordination capacity (for example, training and country team website development). Since coordination activities are staff intensive, the staff of the resident coordinator office accounts for a large part of support to resident coordinators use (75 per cent or more).

Cost-sharing contributions

84. There are indications that some United Nations country teams are able to mobilize significant amounts of donor/partner cost-sharing and United Nations system contributions to supplement support to resident coordinator/country coordinators fund resources. Further information on trends and specific arrangements in this regard are needed. From a review of a random sample of United Nations country teams, the United Nations system can contribute as much as 35 per cent of support for coordinated activities which are part of the United Nations country team workplan, and staff time. Donor contributions (including junior professional officers) can constitute 35 per cent or more. Still, the main burden of funding for the core capacities for coordination is so far borne by UNDP.

B. Funds allocation and reporting

85. The global allocation of the support to resident coordinators and country coordinators funds to resident coordinator offices is delegated to the Director of the Development Operations Coordination Office/Development Group Office, while the management of the funds is delegated to the resident coordinator in each country, with administrative support from UNDP. Resident coordinators submit their budget requests to the Development Group Office as part of the resident coordinator annual report. The annual report includes information on the utilization of the support to resident coordinators/country coordinators funds. The Development Group Office reviews those requests internally and, whenever feasible, involves regional director teams in the allocation of funds.

V. Issues and challenges

86. Much progress has been achieved and many innovations have emerged in the improvement of the functioning of the resident coordinator system. Still, much has yet to be done. The system still faces some old challenges, even as new ones are emerging. Some of the main challenges to the system include the need to:

(a) Respond adequately to the various demands for coordinated action from intergovernmental and inter-agency bodies as well as the United Nations system itself, which requires appropriate funding, including possibly through agency cost-sharing;

(b) Address divergences in business practices that prevent the United Nations system from working together in joint programmes;

(c) Develop a clearer basis and understanding for the division of labour and mutual accountability for results among United Nations development organizations, particularly in thematic areas where there is broad scope for mandate overlap;

(d) Find appropriate cost-effective means for engaging the expertise and knowledge resources of non-resident agencies and mobilizing resources, when needed, to support their more sustained and predictable engagement at the country level;

(e) Integrate more efficiently the work of various coordination entities at the country level, for instance in the areas of humanitarian assistance, security and HIV/AIDS areas;

(f) Secure a predictable, expanded and more equitable approach to providing system-wide support to coordination functions;

(g) Strive to ensure that the benefits of coordination and the resident coordinator system outweigh their cost;

(h) Harmonize further and integrate agency programming instruments, including implementation and monitoring mechanisms.

VI. Conclusions and recommendations

87. The need for integrated approaches, the recent triennial comprehensive policy reviews, and the pursuit of greater aid effectiveness have increased the demands for coordination through the resident coordinator system. This is reflected in the growth of theme groups, joint programming activities and expanded country coordination workplans.

88. Coordination should and is gradually reflecting a fuller alignment of the United Nations system's processes and programmatic priorities with those of the programme countries, as the United Nations system works within nationally led processes.

89. Overall, the resident coordinator system provides the platform for country-level coordination of United Nations development activities, bringing together all assets of the Organization to address national priorities. When necessary, it can mobilize the United Nations system to produce an enhanced response to emerging and critical issues (such as avian influenza), adopting cost-effective, facilitative coordination approaches.

90. Given insufficient data, it has been difficult to quantify overall the real costs of coordination (financial and non-financial). However, the potential benefits can be very substantial, both from the point of view of efficiency, but also, more importantly, in terms of strategic impact. Those benefits cannot be actualized without efforts to coordinate.

91. In order to leverage the impact of coordination, its value added as a means to achieve greater strategic coherence and impact must be clear. This value added is built on the strengths of the substantive capacities, normative mandates and, where appropriate, the impartial convening role of the United Nations system. In this

regard, United Nations country teams in particular should arrive at a common understanding and clarity on: (a) where and why coordination or joint efforts will yield high value added; and (b) what common objectives or results are to be achieved. Appropriate and cost-effective modalities of coordination/joint efforts can be developed accordingly.

92. The Council may wish to:

(a) **Provide guidance to the Secretary-General on core information regarding the resident coordinator system which it wishes to regularly assess through the annual report on this subject;**

(b) **Provide guidance on focused themes to be addressed in future reports on the functioning of the resident coordinator system (see para. 4 above);**

(c) **Encourage efforts to progressively introduce, where appropriate, quantitative indicators in the reporting of the United Nations country teams and the resident coordinators through the annual report, which would be linked to key results in the annual workplans of the resident coordinator system. The Council, however, might also take into consideration the difficulty in quantifying coordination results;**

(d) **Encourage an effort to seek the views of the programme countries and national partners about the effectiveness of coordination of the United Nations system's operational activities for development, as well as their involvement in those processes;**

(e) **Recommend that Secretariat's reports to the governing bodies of the United Nations system organizations, which are active in country-level coordination and have field offices, include quantifiable information on contributions to the resident coordinator system and measures on the decentralization and delegation of authority to the field.**

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Item 6 (b) of the provisional agenda**
Implementation of and follow-up to major United Nations conferences and summits: review and coordination of the implementation of the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010

Implementation of the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010

Report of the Secretary-General

Summary

During the reporting period, the strong economic performance of the least developed countries continued, with most of them, except those in the Pacific, having met or on track to achieving the growth and investment targets of the Brussels Programme by 2010.

Progress made in regard to human development targets has been noticeable in health and education but less so in improved access to water and sanitation. Much less progress than previously thought has been made in respect of gender parity in education and no progress has been made in relation to maternal mortality. Furthermore, the progress made on many social indicators does not seem sustainable. In one half of the least developed countries for which trend data are available, almost 50 per cent of population continues to live in extreme poverty. Malnutrition seems also to be worsening, particularly among children and women.

The global food crisis can exacerbate malnutrition and jeopardize international efforts to achieve the overarching objective of the Brussels Programme — to halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty and hunger in the least developed countries by 2010 — unless both the demand for and supply of basic food items are addressed urgently and comprehensively.

* A/63/50.
** E/2008/1.

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I. Introduction

1. The present report is submitted pursuant to General Assembly resolution 62/203 and Economic and Social Council resolution 2007/31, in which the Secretary-General was requested to submit an annual analytical and results-oriented progress report on the further implementation of the Programme of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010, adopted at the Third United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries in Brussels in May 2000 (hereinafter referred to as the Brussels Programme).

2. The report assesses both the progress made towards achieving the international goals and targets contained in the Brussels Programme, and the commitments of the least developed countries and their development partners in seven, interlinked areas, namely: (a) fostering a people-centred policy framework; (b) good governance at the national and international levels; (c) building human and institutional capacities; (d) building productive capacities to make globalization work for the least developed countries; (e) enhancing the role of trade in development; (f) reducing vulnerability and protecting the environment; and (g) mobilizing financial resources.

3. As in the past, the report follows the structure of the Programme of Action and is accompanied by a statistical annex providing country data. All sources are indicated at the bottom of each table. Cape Verde, which appears among the countries listed in the tables, has since graduated from the list of least developed countries. For the purposes of the analysis, all of the least developed countries are grouped in three regional subgroups: African, Asian and Pacific. Haiti is the only least developed country in the Latin American and Caribbean regional subgroup.

II. Implementation of the Programme of Action

Commitment 1
Fostering a people-centred policy framework

4. The Brussels Programme underscores that accelerated, sustained and inclusive growth is central to poverty reduction, sustainable development and the beneficial integration of the least developed countries in the world economy. To achieve the objectives of halving the proportion of people living in extreme poverty and suffering from hunger by 2015, the Programme set the targets of a growth rate in gross domestic product (GDP) of at least 7 per cent per annum and an increase in the ratio of investment to GDP to 25 per cent per annum by 2010.

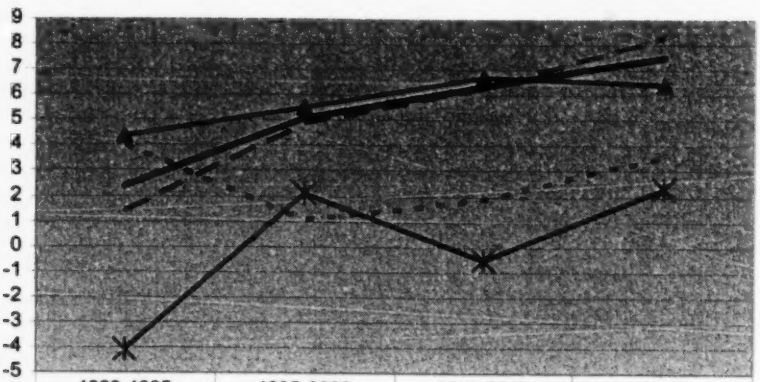
5. In 2006, 29 of the least developed countries met or were on track to meeting the 7 per cent growth target by 2010. This number was down from 31 in 2005 but up from 24 during the period from 2000 to 2005. The number of countries experiencing weak or negative growth declined steadily, from 16 during the period from 2000 to 2005 to 11 in 2006.

6. African oil exporters[1] achieved and African non-oil exporters were only 0.6 per cent below the growth target in 2006, a performance close to that of the

[1] The African oil-exporting least developed countries, as identified by the World Trade Organization, are Angola, Chad, Equatorial Guinea and the Sudan.

Asian least developed countries. Growth in the Pacific improved substantially but was still only one half of the target rate (see fig. 1).

Figure 1
Average annual rate of growth of gross domestic product in the least developed countries, 1990-2006
(Percentage)



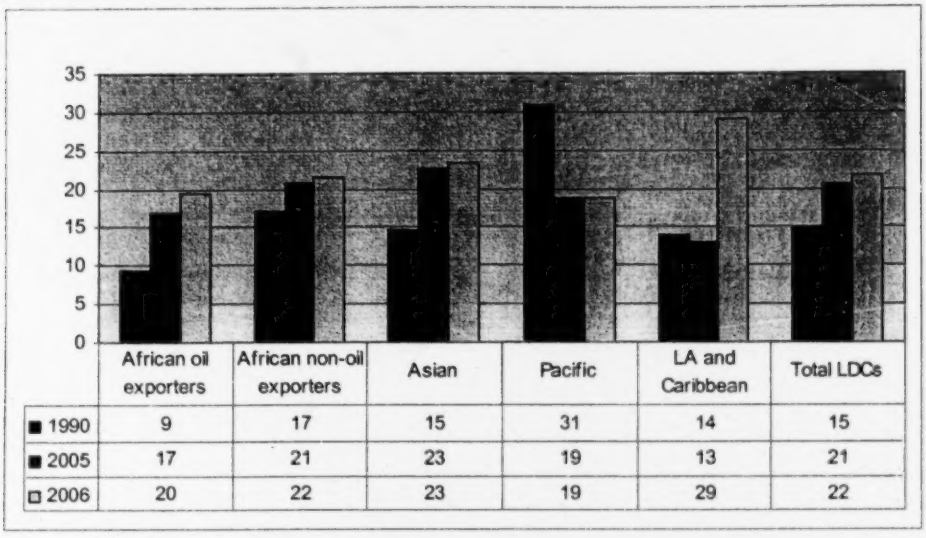
	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2006
African	1.41	4.91	6.27	8.29
Asian	4.41	5.53	6.70	6.42
Pacific	4.01	1.07	1.88	3.61
LA and Caribbean	-4.05	2.10	-0.55	2.31
Total LDCs	2.38	5.09	6.36	7.52

7. However, analysis of the annual rate of growth in GDP per capita shows that rapid population growth in the non-oil exporting African least developed countries wiped out one half of their economic gains, whereas the African oil-exporting least developed countries and the Asian least developed countries with lower rates of population growth were able to benefit from that. The combination of a rapidly growing population and slow economic growth resulted in little change to the per capita income in the least developed countries in the Pacific.

8. All regions, except the Pacific, were on track to achieving the 25 per cent target for the ratio of investment to GDP (see fig. 2). Rates among the African oil exporters, well below the target in 1990, were back on track. Investment in the African non-oil exporting least developed countries was also back on track but increasing at a slower rate. For the least developed countries in the Pacific, investment was below the target.

9. In 2006, 30 of the least developed countries met or were close to the 25 per cent target, up from 29 in 2005 and 18 in 2000. The number of the least developed countries with low rates decreased steadily, from 15 in 2000 to 6 in 2006.

Figure 2
Gross fixed capital formation in the least developed countries as a percentage of gross domestic product in 1990, 2005 and 2006



	African oil exporters	African non-oil exporters	Asian	Pacific	LA and Caribbean	Total LDCs
■ 1990	9	17	15	31	14	15
■ 2005	17	21	23	19	13	21
□ 2006	20	22	23	19	29	22

10. Adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP), international poverty estimates by the World Bank show that in 9 of the 17 least developed countries for which data are available, 50 per cent of the population lives on less than a $1 (PPP) per day. Three of the least developed countries have medium (30-49 per cent) poverty rates and 5 least developed countries showed low (less than 30 per cent) poverty rates. However, the estimates of governments seem to be more pessimistic: using their own national poverty lines, 11 out of the 22 least developed countries for which data are available have poverty rates of over 50 per cent; however, another 10 have mid-range rates of poverty (30-49 per cent) and one a low rate (less than 30 per cent).

11. Malnutrition in the least developed countries seems to be increasing. The most recent data on child malnutrition compiled by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) show a more positive picture than earlier data on the undernourished population collected by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). For the period from 2000 to 2006, UNICEF reports a high (over 45 per cent) rate of undernourished in 3 of the 46 least developed countries for which data are unavailable, whereas for the period from 2002 to 2004, FAO reported a high rate of undernourishment in 8 of the 43 least developed countries for which data are available. Estimates of trends by UNICEF, however, are markedly more negative than those of FAO: according to UNICEF, 27 of the least developed countries show no progress, compared to the 10 estimated by FAO.

12. Soaring food prices[2] could further exacerbate malnutrition in the least developed countries, net food-importing countries since the 1990s. In 2007, the total

[2] According to FAO, since 2006, the average world price of rice has increased by 217 per cent, wheat by 136 per cent, corn by 125 per cent and soybeans by 107 per cent.

food bills of the least developed countries increased by 19 per cent and those for vegetable oils and dairy products by 37 and 63 per cent, respectively. Bills for cereals were also up by 26 per cent.[3]

13. In the attempt to minimize food insecurity, 11 of the least developed countries have reduced import taxes on food grains and 4 have imposed export restrictions. Eight of the least developed countries have increased supply using food grain stocks and four have either put in place price controls or introduced consumer subsidies. However, contrary to the intention, these measures may only add to the problem, discouraging farmers from producing and preventing them from selling, thereby increasing food shortages in world markets and contributing to even higher global prices.

14. Of the 50 least developed countries, 47 are classified by FAO as low-income, food-deficit countries and 20 as countries in food crisis. According to FAO, food imports account for 35 per cent of the calorie intake in these countries and high food prices mean that poor households spend about 70 per cent of their income on food. High food prices could destabilize the political situation and trigger social unrest. At least five people were killed in a food riot in Haiti early in April 2008, leading to the fall of the Government and an emergency situation jeopardizing economic recovery and national reconciliation in this post-conflict country.[4] Food riots have also taken place in Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Mauritania, Mozambique, Senegal and Yemen. The food situation has been precarious in a number of other least developed countries, including Bangladesh, the largest least developed country, which recently suffered two severe floods and a cyclone that destroyed about 3.0 million tons of food grains.

Commitment 2
Good governance at the national and international levels

15. The Brussels Programme emphasizes that transparent, accountable and efficient practices within government, the private sector and civil society, the rule of law, and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms at the national level, and an open, equitable, rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory multilateral and financial system at the international level, are critical to the Programme's success.

16. The *Worldwide Governance Indicators* project measures good governance performance in six areas (voice and accountability, political stability and absence of violence, government effectiveness, regulatory quality, rule of law and control of corruption) on a scale from -2.5 to +2.5. The indicators for 2007[5] show steady improvement in the performance of the least developed countries in four areas (voice and accountability, political stability, rule of law and control of corruption) but a worsening in two other areas (government effectiveness and regulatory quality) since 2000. The latter were the two areas in which the least developed countries scored lowest among all groups of countries during the period from 2000 to 2006.

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[3] See FAO, *Food Outlook* (November 2007), at http://www.fao.org/docrep/010/ah876e/ah876e01.htm.

[4] United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH) press release PIO/PR/359/FR/2008 dated 14 April 2008, available in French at http://www.minustah.org/articles/1200/1/Communique-de-presse--359/PIOPR359FR2008.html.

[5] Available at http://info.worldbank.org/governance/wgi2007/.

17. In 2006, 48 of the 50 least developed countries were eligible for external lending from the International Development Association (IDA). The Country Policy and Institutional Assessment rating, decisive in the allocation of IDA interest-free credits and grants, measures good governance performance against 16 indicators in four areas (economic management, structural policies, policies for social inclusion/equity, and public sector management and institutions) on a scale from 1 (low) to 6 (high). Performance above the midpoint (3.5) is considered to be strong and below as weak. In 2006, the least developed countries scored 3.4 in economic management, 3.2 in structural policies, 3.2 in social policies and 3.0 in public sector management.[6] Except for the marginal change (-0.1) in structural policies, those scores were precisely the same as in 2005 and showed weak governance performance.

18. An analysis of *Doing Business* indicators, which measure the ease of doing business in 10 areas (starting a business, dealing with licenses, employing workers, registering property, getting credit, protecting investors, paying taxes, trading across borders, enforcing contracts and closing a business), show that, except for paying taxes and enforcing contacts, the least developed countries were the most difficult in which to do business of the 178 countries surveyed in 2007.[7] The least developed countries were also the slowest to reform. Thus, easing business entry is the most popular reform among all countries but, while countries members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) reduced the time to start a business by 47 per cent between 2003 and 2007, the least developed countries cut the time by only 15 per cent in the same period.

19. Fiscal revenues from extractive industries (taxes, royalties, signature bonuses and other payments) can contribute to economic growth and social development, if managed properly. The Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) supports transparency and accountability by making companies publish what they pay and Governments what they receive from the exploration of natural oil, gas and minerals. The EITI country implementation process is comprised of five stages: (a) signing up to the EITI principles and preparation of the workplan; (b) preparation (establishment of the multi-stakeholder committee, appointment of the EITI administrator and ensuring accounts auditing); (c) disclosure of revenues and reconciliation of payments and revenues; (d) dissemination (making public the EITI report); and (e) external validation at least every two years.

20. In 2008, Madagascar and Timor-Leste joined EITI by signing up to its principles. This brought the number of least developed countries among EITI candidate countries to 12, including the 8 which are currently at the preparation stage and the 2 (Guinea and Mauritania) which have disclosed their revenues. None of the least developed countries have published the EITI report or undertaken external validation, both necessary for acquiring the status of EITI compliant country. Guinea has become the first country to commence the renewed and invigorated Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (known as EITI++), which aims to translate the high revenues obtained from the exploration of natural resources into better standards of living for poor people. Under EITI++, Guinea will receive technical assistance in awarding contracts, monitoring operations, collecting

[6] http://siteresources.worldbank.org/IDA/Resources/73153-1181752621336/TRA!2006table1.xls.

[7] See *Doing Business 2008: Comparing Regulation in 178 Economies* (World Bank, September 2007).

taxes, improving resource extraction, managing price volatility and effectively investing revenues in sustainable development.

21. Given their small size and high value, diamonds are often used in illegal transactions, money-laundering, arms purchases, etc. Diamonds fuelled seven brutal wars in Africa in 1990, including four in the least developed countries of Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia and Sierra Leone. Recognizing the devastating role of the illicit trade in diamonds in fuelling conflicts, supporting the activities of rebel movements aimed at overthrowing legitimate government and in the procurement of small arms and light weapons, as well as the benefits of the legitimate diamond trade to the economies of producing, exporting and importing countries, 11 of the least developed countries have joined the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme, an international certification scheme which has regulated the legal trade in rough diamonds since 2003.

22. At the fifth annual meeting of the Kimberley Process held in November 2007, Burkina Faso and Mali affirmed their decision to participate in the Process and Cape Verde and Zambia expressed their interest in participating. Five of the least developed countries (Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Lesotho, Togo and United Republic of Tanzania) have held the first round of reviews and four (Angola, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo and Guinea) have invited the Working Group on Monitoring to undertake a second round of review visits.

23. The Kimberley Process has contributed to a significant reduction in the international trade in conflict diamonds. It is estimated that less than 1 per cent of the diamonds traded in 2006 were conflict diamonds, compared to 15 per cent in 1990. The legal export of diamonds has increased proportionately: diamond exports in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 2006 were the highest since their presence was discovered 100 years ago. Legal exports of diamonds in Sierra Leone have increased 100-fold since the end of the war in 2002 and brought benefits to the estimated 10 per cent of the population which depends on the diamond industry.[8]

Commitment 3
Building human and institutional capacities

24. The Brussels Programme recognizes that women, men and children are the greatest assets of the least developed countries. Strengthening their potential as both agents and beneficiaries of development is one of the major objectives of the Programme.

25. In 2006, 14 of the 45 least developed countries for which trend data are available were on track to achieving the target of reducing maternal mortality by three quarters by 2015, and an additional 7 were making significant progress towards that goal. However, the remaining 24, including 18 with the highest rates of maternal mortality, were making no progress and could experience a negative trend unless major improvements in nutrition and public health service delivery are made, especially in rural areas. Particularly high maternal mortality rates were found in sub-Saharan Africa.

[8] For the 2007 report on the Kimberley Process, see A/62/543 and Add.1.

26. About one third of the 50 least developed countries has achieved or is on track to achieving the goal of reducing the infant mortality rate. Twelve others have made substantial progress since 1990 towards attaining the target and data show continuing progress during the period from 2004 to 2006. However, no progress or even negative change was reported in 11 others with very high infant mortality rates.

27. By 2006, 15 of the 50 least developed countries met or were on track to meeting the target for the under-5 mortality rate. Significant progress, though still insufficient to achieve the target by 2010, has been made in another 20 since 1990. However, minimal or negative trends were observed in 15 others, with the highest rates of under-5 mortality.

28. Malnutrition is the underlying cause of almost 50 per cent of child deaths. Although there was good evidence of improvement in nutrition among children under 5 years of age in 17 of the 48 least developed countries for which data are available, little or no improvement was found in the other 31, including the 18 in which over 30 per cent of children under 5 years of age suffer from the moderate or severe wasting (underweight relative to height) associated with disease or acute malnutrition.

29. Use of treated mosquito nets has increased in the past few years but, of the 32 least developed countries for which data are available, only 4 reported more than 25 per cent and 19 reported 10 per cent of children sleeping under treated mosquito nets since 2003. Treatment with anti-malarial drugs is more widespread: 23 of the 33 least developed countries for which data are available report their use by one quarter of children with fever. Estimates available in 2006 of malaria prevalence and deaths per 1,000 population in the period from 1990 to 2003 show that, of the 30 least developed countries for which trend data are available, 15 reported a marked improvement, while 13 reported a deterioration. Very high numbers of deaths from malaria are found in 10 of the least developed countries and high numbers in another 9. High prevalence of malaria is mainly found in southern and south-eastern Asia, and in sub-Saharan Africa where most deaths from malaria occur.

30. Good progress was continuing to be made in the treatment of tuberculosis under DOTS, the internationally recommended tuberculosis control strategy, with an increasing number of the least developed countries (19 in 2005 compared to 9 in 2002) achieving the 85+ percentage coverage recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO). Rates of detection of tuberculosis have also been improving: in 2006, 12 of the least developed countries, compared to 7 in 2003, achieved the WHO 70+ per cent detection target, while the number of those with low rates of detection decreased from 11 in 2003 to 7 in 2006. The prevalence of tuberculosis and death rates declined substantially in some of the least developed countries but the number of those in which there was high prevalence increased from 26 in 2003 to 29 in 2006, while the number with high death rates declined from 24 in 2003 to 22 in 2006.

31. New data for the period from 2000 to 2006 show increased knowledge and prevention of HIV/AIDS in most of the least developed countries for which data are available. Declines in HIV incidence are now reported in three fifths of the least developed countries for which trend data are available. However, there are pronounced intra- and interregional differences. In Asia and the Pacific, the epidemic has been largely confined, with only three of the least developed countries

believed to have rates over 0.1. The rates in Cambodia, the most affected least developed country in the Asian and Pacific region, has been rapidly falling. In the least developed countries in southern and eastern Africa, rates of HIV incidence remain the highest (10 per 100 population) and the extent of decline is still uncertain. In Central and West Africa, rates between 1 and 4 cases per 100 population are believed to be declining.

32. Twenty-six of the least developed countries are on track or are making rapid progress towards achieving the universal primary education enrolment goal, up from 17 a decade ago. The number of countries making little or no progress is also down substantially, from 12 in the decade 1991-2000 to 7 in the period since 2000.

33. However, the most recent data show that less progress was made than initially thought on the goals for gender equality in education, with many countries reporting little or no progress and even a decline. Of the 40 least developed countries for which data are available, 22 either met in 2005 or are on track to reaching the gender equality target in primary education by 2010. Twelve others were making progress but insufficient to meet the gender target for primary education by 2010. No progress was observed in the remaining six. Of the 31 least developed countries for which data for 2005 were available, 10 met or were on track to meeting the gender equality goal in secondary education, up from 8 in 2000. Another 7 were making progress, although insufficient to meet the target. In nearly one half of the least developed countries, little or no progress was made during the period from 2000 to 2005 on the gender target in secondary education. Less than one third for which data are available met or were on track to meeting the target on gender equality in tertiary education, indicating that there had been no change between 1999 and 2005.

34. Twenty-eight of the least developed countries were on track to achieving the sanitation target in urban areas, up from 26 in 2002, but little progress was made in the others. The situation in rural areas appears to have been deteriorating: the number of the least developed countries on track to meeting the target dropped from 16 in 2002 to 10 in 2004, and there has been very low coverage and no improvement in another 25 since 2002.

35. Meeting the target on access to safe drinking water was largely on track in urban areas: there was improved access in 45 of the 50 least developed countries but only 20 had achieved or were on track to achieving the target in rural areas by 2015. Very high (more than 3 per cent annually) urban population growth in the majority of the least developed countries (30 of the 50) poses a main challenge to the development of infrastructure for providing improved access to safe drinking water and sanitation.

36. The situation concerning access to improved sanitation was much worse: wide coverage of the population in urban areas was reported in six of the least developed countries, and in rural areas, in only one. Only around one half of the population in urban areas in the majority of the least developed countries and less than 35 per cent of that in rural areas in two thirds of the least developed countries had access to improved sanitation.

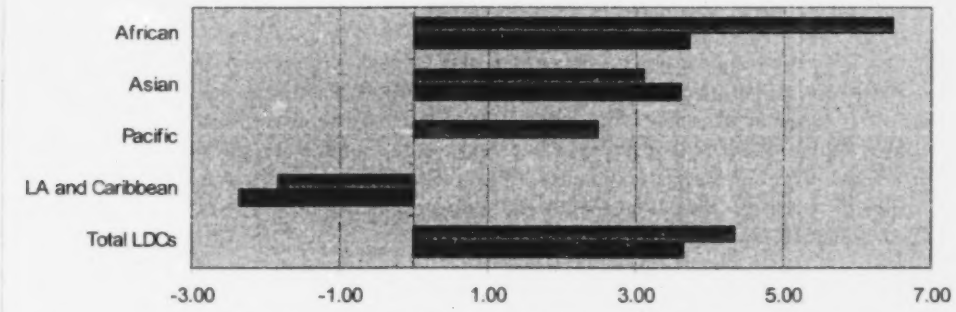
Commitment 4
Building productive capacities to make globalization work for the least developed countries

37. The new wave of globalization has brought both opportunities and challenges but whether the least developed countries will ride or be submerged under this wave depends on their ability to build national productive capacities through capital accumulation and technological progress, which could lead to structural change.[9]

38. Over 72 per cent of the population of the least developed countries still lives in rural areas and depends for subsistence and income on agriculture. In 2006, agriculture contributed 28.4 per cent of the least developed countries GDP but, in individual countries, its contribution was even higher: over 60 per cent in Guinea-Bissau and over 40 per cent in Comoros, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Sierra Leone and the United Republic of Tanzania.

39. Notwithstanding its importance for the economy and the livelihoods of the rural population, agriculture remains underdeveloped and agricultural productivity in the least developed countries has been declining. Data available in 2007 show that the annual rate of increase in cereal production in the African least developed countries fell by one half and of that roots and tubers, subsistence staples in Africa, from 3.40 per cent to a negative 1.22 per cent. In the Asian least developed countries, the rate of increase in cereal production improved slightly in 2005/06 (see fig. 3), while the production of roots and tubers, much less significant crops in Asia than in Africa, has been rapidly growing.

Figure 3
Annual rate of growth in cereal production in the least developed countries, 2000-2005 and 2005/06
(Percentage)



	Total LDCs	Latin America and Caribbean	Pacific	Asian	African
■ 2000-2005	4.32	-1.84	2.46	3.10	6.48
■ 2005/2006	3.63	-2.36	0.00	3.60	3.72

[9] See United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, *The Least Developed Countries Report 2006* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.06.II.D.9).

40. Declining soil fertility is one of the major causes of falling crop yields and food production in the least developed countries. Despite the highest needs for replenishment of nutrient-depleted soils, the use of fertilizers in the least developed countries remains extremely low owing to high local prices. It is estimated that, in the period from 2000 to 2003, fertilizer use in the Asian least developed countries was 44 kg per hectare and 7 kg in those in Africa.[10] According to the International Centre for Soil Fertility and Agriculture Development, global prices for fertilizers grew steadily during the period from 2004 to 2006 owing to the higher demand in emerging economies for grain-fed meat. In 2007, food prices soared by over 200 per cent as farmers in industrialized countries increased the use of fertilizers in their efforts to raise grain production for biofuel.

41. A recent study shows that the bottom 75 per cent of the population in the African least developed countries has access to less than 0.26 hectares per capita and the bottom 70 per cent of population in the Asian least developed countries has access to less than one hectare of land, while the most disadvantaged 25 per cent of small farmers are virtually landless. Richer households have higher yields owing to better access to inputs (fertilizers, seeds and planting material) and irrigation. As a result, in the African least developed countries, net farm output per hectare for the richest 25 per cent of households was three to six times higher than that of the poorest 25 per cent. Similar patterns were observed in the Asian least developed countries.[10]

42. The proportion of irrigated agricultural land in the Asian least developed countries increased from 10 per cent in the 1960s to 30 per cent in the period from 2000 to 2003. A particularly strong (7-53 per cent) increase in irrigated land was recorded in Bangladesh but also in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Nepal owing to high public investment in irrigation. By contrast, only 7 per cent of agricultural land in the African least developed countries was irrigated in the period from 2000 to 2003, almost the same proportion as in the 1960s.[10]

43. As a result of declining soil fertility, poor access to improved seeds and planting materials, dependence on weather-sensitive agriculture, unsustainable use and management of natural resources (water, land, forestry, fisheries), chronic underinvestment in science and research, and lack of access to land, modern technology, markets and finance, many of the least developed countries formerly exporters of agricultural products have since 1990 become importers.

44. Poor transport infrastructure and high transport costs impede the access of the least developed countries to local and international markets, while lack of safe storage and of access to market information causes significant losses of harvested crops.

45. Data available for the period from 1999 to 2003 showed a significant increase since 1995 in the number of countries with 15 per cent or more of paved roads but little or no change in the total length of roads in the majority of the least developed countries since 1990. Data available for the period from 2000 to 2006 for 11 of the least developed countries show an increase in the lengths of roads in 7 and no change or even a decrease in the other 4. During the same period, the percentage of paved roads increased in 4 of the least developed countries and declined in 7.

[10] Ibid.

46. Railways lengths are limited in most of the least developed countries for which data are available. Of the 10 for which trend data are available, freight tons have been increasing in 3 and stable or falling in the remaining 7.

47. Air services have been increasing significantly in one half of the least developed countries for which data are available, with no progress made or services declining in the rest. Significant levels in the transport of air freight (more than 10 million tons per km) were registered in 17 of the least developed countries during the period from 2004 to 2006. However, 17 of the 24 for which trend data are available registered minimal growth or decline in air freight volume.

48. In 2006, 36 of the least developed countries reached the target of increasing average telephone density to 5 or more main line telephone and cellular service connections per 100 inhabitants, with 11 more on track to meeting it by 2010. Of the 49 least developed countries for which data are available, in only 1 was there minimal service (fewer than 2 lines per 100 inhabitants), compared to 45 of 48 in 1990.

49. The number of the least developed countries with 1 Internet user per 100 inhabitants increased from 7 in 2000 to 27 in 2006. Still, 21 of the 47 for which data are available had less than 1 Internet user per 100 inhabitants in 2006. Furthermore, only 1 per cent of the population in the least developed countries used the Internet in 2006, compared to 11 per cent of the population in developing countries and 60 per cent of the population in developed countries.

Commitment 5
Enhancing the role of trade in development

50. Merchandise exports of the least developed countries as a percentage of world exports have been growing steadily since 2002 and reached 0.9 per cent in 2006. However, excluding oil, their share in world trade in 2006 remained at the level of 2002: 0.4 per cent.

51. The annual rate of growth in exports by the least developed countries in 2006 decreased by 9 per cent compared to 2005 but was still double the rate of global exports. Exports of manufactures by the least developed countries in 2005 and 2006 grew faster than world exports for the first time in the decade and their exports of commodities in 2006 returned to the high rate of 2004. It is worth noting that the least developed countries exporters of commodities experienced a more heterogeneous growth pattern owing to greater variance in international prices between mineral and agricultural commodities.

52. The average tariffs levied by developed countries on textiles decreased from 4.5 per cent in 1996 to 3.2 per cent in 2006 but the decrease in tariffs on clothing, a strategically important sector for many of the least developed countries, was much less: 8.1 per cent in 1996, compared to 6.4 per cent in 2006. Average tariffs levied by developed countries on agricultural commodities have decreased steadily: from 4 per cent in 1996 to 2.8 per cent in 2006 (see table 1).

Table 1
Average tariffs levied by developed countries on imports of key products from developing countries, 1996-2006
(Percentage)

	1996	*1997*	*1998*	*1999*	*2000*	*2001*	*2002*	*2003*	*2004*	*2005*	*2006*
Agricultural goods											
Developing countries[a]	10.5	10.0	10.0	9.5	9.3	9.3	9.5	9.4	9.2	8.9	8.6
Least developed countries	4.0	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.7	2.7	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.1	2.8
Textiles											
Developing countries[a]	7.3	7.2	7.0	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.0	5.8	5.2	5.3	5.2
Least developed countries	4.5	4.5	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.8	3.8	3.5	3.2	3.2	3.2
Clothing											
Developing countries[a]	11.4	11.3	11.2	10.9	10.8	11.3	10.0	9.7	8.6	8.3	8.2
Least developed countries	8.1	8.1	8.0	7.9	7.8	7.7	7.4	7.0	6.4	6.4	6.4

Source: Calculations by the International Trade Centre UNCTAD/WTO.
[a] All developing countries, including the least developed countries.

53. There has been almost no change since 1996 in duty-free access to developed country markets for products originating from the least developed countries (see table 2). Although the percentage of exports from the least developed countries, excluding arms, increased from 68 per cent in 1996 to 89 per cent in 2006, the percentage of exports from the least developed countries, excluding arms and oil, increased only marginally: from 78 per cent in 1996 to 79 per cent in 2006.

Table 2
Proportion of total developed country imports from developing countries and the least developed countries admitted free of duty, 1996-2006
(Percentage)

	1996	*1997*	*1998*	*1999*	*2000*	*2001*	*2002*	*2003*	*2004*	*2005*	*2006*
Excluding arms											
Developing countries[a]	53	54	54	62	63	67	67	71	76	76	81
Least developed countries	68	69	81	76	75	78	78	81	82	83	89
Excluding arms and oil											
Developing countries[a]	54	55	54	63	65	64	69	71	76	76	77
Least developed countries	78	77	78	72	70	71	74	78	80	80	79

Source: Calculations by the International Trade Centre UNCTAD/WTO.
[a] All developing countries, including the least developed countries.

54. In response to the decision taken at the Sixth Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization (WTO) held in Hong Kong, China, in December 2005, concerning 97 per cent duty-free and quota-free market access for products of the least developed countries, some developed countries informed WTO that they had met the conditions (Australia, members of the European Communities, New Zealand

and Norway) and a few others provided information on the steps taken in that regard. With the enlargement of the European Union and the subsequent expansion of the Customs Union, Bulgaria and Romania will also provide duty-free and quota-free market access for exports from the least developed countries under the Everything But Arms initiative. Turkey will grant them the same access as part of its alignment with the Generalized System of Preferences scheme of the European Union under the Customs Union agreement.[11]

55. Several developing countries (e.g., China, Brazil, India and the Republic of Korea) have also indicated their intention to improve markets access for the least developed countries, either on a bilateral basis or within the framework of regional trade agreements.

56. In April 2008, India announced a duty-free tariff preference scheme for all of the least developed countries. The scheme will cover 94 per cent of the total tariff lines of India and offer preferential market access to almost 93 per cent of exports from the least developed countries. Products of immediate interest for the least developed countries include cotton, cocoa, aluminium ore, cashew nuts and ready-made garments. To enjoy tariff preference, a product must be classified as originating in the least developed country and as (a) wholly produced or obtained or (b) not wholly produced or obtained. India will also provide technical assistance, as appropriate, for the effective implementation of the scheme.

57. Between 2001 and 2004, official development assistance (ODA) provided by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development/Development Assistance Committee (OECD/DAC) to trade-related capacity-building in the least developed countries fell by 42 per cent but has increased since 2005. As a percentage of the total provided by OECD/DAC to the least developed countries, ODA for trade-related capacity-building fell from 4.5 per cent in 2001 to 1.6 per cent in 2005 but recovered to 2.6 per cent in 2006, still below the 2001 high.

58. As of March 2008, 46 of the 50 least developed countries were at different stages of the Integrated Framework for Trade-related Technical Assistance,[12] including 30 which had concluded the diagnostic trade integrated study process and held a validation workshop, 11 which had started that process and 5 in which the technical reviews were under way. The countries which have not yet applied are Bangladesh, Bhutan, Myanmar and Somalia.

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[11] Note by the secretariat of WTO on market access for products and services of export interest to the least developed countries (WT/COMTD/LDC/W/41/Rev.1).

[12] The Integrated Framework, established in 1997 and revamped in 2000, is managed by six agencies (International Monetary Fund, International Trade Centre UNCTAD/WTO, United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, United Nations Development Programme, World Bank and World Trade Organization). It is aimed at assisting the least developed countries in mainstreaming trade into their national development plans and poverty reduction strategy papers and facilitating the coordinated delivery of trade-related assistance. By addressing their supply-side constraints, it also contributes to better integration of the least developed countries in the multilateral trading system. There are four stages to the Integrated Framework process: (a) building awareness of the importance of trade for development; (b) preparation of a diagnostic trade integrated study and an action plan for better integration in the global trading system; (c) integration of the plan of action in national development plans and poverty reduction strategy papers; and (d) implementation of the action plan in partnership with the development partners.

59. Following the decision of the Sixth Ministerial Conference of WTO in December 2005 to enhance the Integrated Framework, the bodies concerned adopted recommendations on its enhancement and began its operationalization in May 2007. It is estimated that the implementation of the Enhanced Integrated Framework will require US$ 400 million for the first 15 years. Of this amount, US$ 250 million will be provided from the related trust fund and the remainder through bilateral assistance programmes. Of the US$ 250 million necessary for the replenishment of the trust fund, US$ 110 million was pledged at a conference held in Stockholm on 25 September 2007. The Enhanced Integrated Framework is aimed at providing (a) increased, additional, predictable financial resources for the implementation of action matrices, (b) strengthened in-country capacities to manage, implement and monitor the Integrated Framework process and (c) enhanced Integrated Framework governance. Implementation of the Enhanced Integrated Framework will also facilitate the access of the least developed countries to funding of trade-related projects under the Aid for Trade initiative.

60. Despite the adoption of guidelines to facilitate and accelerate negotiations on the accession of the least developed countries to WTO by the General Council in 2002 and subsequent decisions of the ministerial conferences of WTO, only three of the least developed countries (Cambodia, Cape-Verde and Nepal) have joined WTO since its establishment in 1995. Ten of the other least developed countries are at various stages of accession.

Commitment 6
Reducing vulnerability and protecting the environment

61. Although the least developed countries contribute least to global warming (0.4 per cent of cumulative greenhouse gas emissions between 1995-2005), they are hardest hit by the adverse effects of climate change owing to high vulnerability and lowest adaptive capacities.

62. Under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, all developed and developing countries agreed to formulate and implement national programmes containing measures to facilitate adequate adaptation to climate change. Recognizing the special needs of the least developed countries, in particular in terms of funding and transfer of technology, the Conference of the Parties has established the Least Developed Countries Fund and the Least Developed Countries Expert Group, with a view to assisting them in the preparation and implementation of national adaptation programmes of action by providing technical guidance and advice.

63. The process for the national adaptation programmes of action consists of the following stages: (a) synthesis of available information; (b) participatory assessment of vulnerability to climate change and extreme weather events; (c) identification of areas of highest risk; (d) identification of key adaptation measures; (e) selection of criteria for the prioritization of activities; and (f) compilation of a short list of prioritized activities. The development of a programme of action also involves preparing outlines of projects and related activities aimed at addressing the most urgent and immediate adaptation needs of the least developed countries.

64. By 2008, 46 of the least developed countries had prepared or were preparing national adaptation programmes of action, many with the assistance of the Least Developed Countries Expert Group. As at 30 April 2007, cumulative net allocations

from the Least Developed Countries Fund amounted to US$ 12 million. All approved allocations were committed and disbursed. Seventeen donors have pledged contributions to the Fund, with the total amount of pledges reaching US$ 115.8 million.

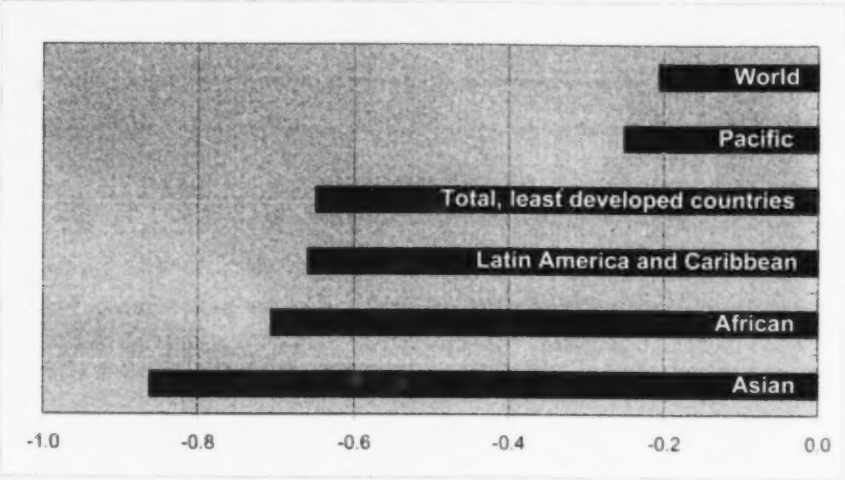
65. The stocktaking exercise of 21 completed programmes of action undertaken by the Least Developed Countries Expert Group at a meeting held in Bangkok from 3 to 5 September 2007 showed that the limited integration of adaptation strategies into national development policy and planning and a lack of technical and institutional capacity were major barriers to implementing the adaptation measures. More specifically, the least developed countries lack (a) the ability to incorporate climate change and other environmental issues into socio-economic and sectoral plans, (b) the capacity to mainstream adaptation strategies into broader national development, (c) the ability to formulate, analyse and implement integrated strategies and policies, (d) availability of and access to data, (e) the capacity and resources of research institutions, (f) the in-depth knowledge required to develop fundable adaptation projects and (g) adequate technical support.

66. The Clean Development Mechanism, established under the Kyoto Protocol, has been the principal mechanism for financing low-carbon technologies in developing countries. However, the Mechanism benefits large emitting developing countries, not those which have the least capacity to adapt to climate change. As at 11 April 2008, 999 projects for the issuance of 205,064,680 million certified emission reductions were registered and another 86 projects for the issuance of 14,266,652 certified emission reductions were in the process of registration. Brazil, Chile, China, India, Malaysia, Mexico and the Republic of Korea accounted for 80.78 per cent of all project activities. Large countries submit large projects which account for 52.17 per cent of all project activities under the Clean Development Mechanism. Most of the projects are in the energy sector, industry and transport. Agriculture and forestry, strategic sectors for the least developed countries, account for only 6.5 per cent and 0.08 per cent, respectively, of all project activities. In addition, the Clean Development Mechanism registration process remains complicated and there is an admission fee. As a result, while the number of projects registered under the Clean Development Mechanism increased from 500 to just under 1,000 between February 2007 and April 2008, the number from the least developed countries increased from 7 to 9.

67. Given their minimal contribution to global greenhouse gas emissions, adaptation is the major response of the least developed countries to climate change. However, adaptation can be effective only when it is complemented by mitigation.

68. Deforestation contributes to 17.3 per cent of global anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions. Agricultural expansion, wood extraction and infrastructural expansion are the major causes of deforestation. During the period from 2000 to 2005, the average annual rate of deforestation in the least developed countries was 0.70 per cent, compared to 0.18 per cent globally. The average annual rate of deforestation in the Asian least developed countries and those in the Pacific was even higher: 0.93 per cent and 0.78 per cent, respectively. The African least developed countries had lower rates of deforestation (0.60 per cent), however, rapid deforestation has been taking place in a number of them: Benin (2.5 per cent), Burundi (5 per cent), Togo (4.5 per cent) and Uganda (2.2 per cent).

Figure 4
Average annual rate of deforestation in the least developed countries, 1990-2005

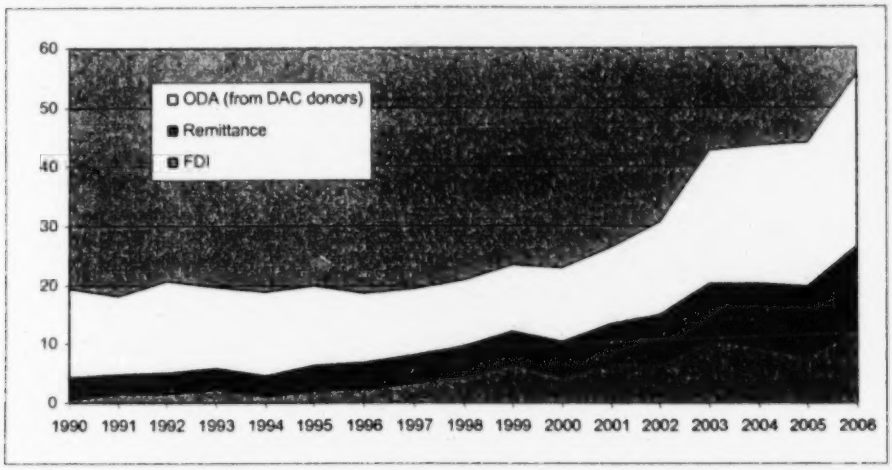


69. With 86 million hectares in area, the rainforest of the Democratic Republic of the Congo is the world's second largest tropical forest, providing 8 per cent of global carbon storage. It is estimated that forest loss and degradation in the Congo River basin can release into the atmosphere 34.4 billion tons of carbon dioxide by 2050, more than any other land use practice on the continent. The forests in Democratic Republic of the Congo are vital not only for the global environment but for the livelihoods of the Congolese people. Almost 40 million rural Congolese depend on the forests for their food, income, energy, shelter, medicines and cultural needs. Indigenous groups, including the Pygmies, rely almost entirely on them. Socially, environmentally and economically sustainable policies are therefore crucial for the sustainable management of those forests.

Commitment 7
Mobilizing financial resources

70. Effective public finance, including taxation, is essential for financing development. However, the tax base in the least developed countries remains too narrow, and tax collection institutions and policies too weak, to generate adequate public revenues. As a result, domestic resource mobilization remains a challenge for many of the least developed countries which rely, some heavily, on ODA. In 2006, ODA accounted for between 40 and 70 per cent of public finance in some and 8.8 per cent of the gross national income (GNI) of the least developed countries as a whole. In 11, however, the share of ODA to GNI was higher (more than 20 per cent), reaching above 50 per cent in Samoa (60 per cent), Madagascar (54 per cent) and Burundi (53 per cent).

Figure 5
Source of development finance for the least developed countries, 1990-2006
(Billions of United States dollars)



71. Total donor ODA received by the least developed countries has continued to increase since 2000 and reached US$ 29.4 billion in 2006. However, both as a percentage of total donor ODA (28.2 per cent) and a percentage of donor GNI (0.09 per cent), ODA received by the least developed countries remained at the level of 1990. Most of the increase in ODA was due to debt forgiveness and emergency assistance. Six of 22 donors met the ODA/GNI target of 0.20 per cent in 2006, only one more than in 2000. Two donors (Belgium and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) are on track to meeting the 0.20 per cent target and three others to meeting the interim target of 0.15 per cent by 2010.

72. Total expenditure of the United Nations system on operational activities in the least developed countries has doubled since 2002 and in 2006 reached US$ 5.3 billion. As a percentage of its total expenditure on operational activities, expenditure in the least developed countries steadily increased from 28.4 per cent in 2002 to 36.7 per cent in 2005 but dropped to 34.0 per cent in 2006, mainly owing to the significant decreases in expenditure by the World Food Programme (WFP) (-7.1 per cent) and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (-4.1 per cent). All top 10 recipients of United Nations expenditure on operational activities as a percentage of GNI in 2006 were least developed countries: Liberia (34 per cent), Burundi (17 per cent), the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Guinea-Bissau, Maldives and Timor-Leste (more than 5 per cent) and Malawi, Sao Tome and Principe and Sierra Leone (more than 4 per cent). Thirteen of the top 20 recipients of United Nations assistance per capita in 2006 were also least developed countries, including the Maldives (US$ 145), Liberia (US$ 47), Timor-Leste (US$ 46) and Sao Tome and Principe (US$ 37).

73. As of February 2008, 32 of the 50 least developed countries had participated in the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Delivery of debt relief by the World Bank under HIPC and the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) continued increase,

from US$ 2.80 billion in mid-2006 to US$ 3.24 billion by the beginning of 2008, reaching 37 per cent of commitments in 2006 terms of net present value. Delivery by IMF, already at 80 per cent in 2006, increased to 88 per cent, or US$ 1.34 billion. The number of the least developed countries which have passed the completion point has increased from 13 in 2006 to 17 in 2008. Twelve of the least developed countries passed from the pre-decision to the pre-completion point, while those remaining under consideration were dropped.

74. As a result of the debt relief measures implemented under HIPC and MDRI, 32 of the least developed countries in 2006 reduced the ratio of debt service to exports of goods and services to below 10 per cent, compared to 29 in 2004 and only 14 in 1990. Furthermore, none of the least developed countries had a ratio of debt service to exports over 20 per cent, compared to 11 in 1990. Reduced debt service ratios can be also attributed to the significant increase in exports from the least developed countries. Notwithstanding the positive impact of the debt relief measures, nine post-completion least developed countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Sao Tome and Principe and Sierra Leone) showed a moderate risk of debt distress and one (Rwanda) a high risk, suggesting that the underlying vulnerabilities in regard to debt sustainability remain and need to be further addressed.

75. Unsurprisingly, six of the seven least developed countries at risk of debt distress have been identified for additional debt relief at a completion point (referred to as topping up), including two (Malawi and Sao Tome and Principe) to which it has been committed. Topping up assistance to Sao Tome and Principe has been committed owing to the severe impact of drought on its export volumes. The largely unexpected decline in export prices and a fall in international interest rates were the main factors behind the commitment to top up debt relief to Malawi.

76. Total foreign direct investment (FDI) inflows to the least developed countries, in current United States dollars, have almost tripled since 1990 and in 2006 reached US$ 12,334 million. As a percentage of GDP, FDI in the least developed countries has increased ninefold since 1990 and in 2006 reached 3.7 per cent. The number of the least developed countries with a share of FDI in GDP of over 5 per cent increased from 6 in 1990 to 14 in 2006, while the number of those with a share of less than 1 per cent or negative, declined from 26 in 1990 to 14 in 2006. Among the regions, the oil-exporting least developed countries in Africa and the least developed countries in the Pacific had the highest share (the 6 per cent and 6.8 per cent, respectively) of FDI as a percentage of GDP among the 44 least developed countries for which 2006 data are available.

77. Workers' remittances to the least developed countries have doubled since 2000 and in 2006 reached US$ 14.02 billion. More than one half of the remittances originated in developing countries. The top 10 recipients of remittances among the least developed countries in 2006 were Bangladesh, Cambodia, Haiti, Lesotho, Nepal, Senegal, the Sudan and Togo. In 2006, the top 10 recipients as a percentage of GDP were Bangladesh, Cape Verde, the Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Kiribati, Lesotho, Nepal, Togo and Uganda.

III. Conclusions and recommendations

78. During the reporting period, the strong economic performance of the least developed countries continued, with most of them, except those in the Pacific, having met or on track to achieving the growth and investment targets of the Brussels Programme by 2010. Merchandise exports of the least developed countries have been growing at double the rate of world exports since 2000. Net foreign direct investment and remittance inflows to the least developed countries have more than doubled.

79. The progress made in regard to human development targets has been noticeable in health and education but further advances will crucially depend on improved access to water and sanitation where progress has been far less owing to chronic underinvestment in the infrastructure for delivering services in rural areas and the rapid growth of the population in urban areas. Also, less progress than previously thought has been made in gender parity in education and no progress has been made in relation to maternal mortality. Trend data on extreme poverty suggest that almost 50 per cent of the population in one half of the least developed countries for which data are available live in extreme poverty, while malnutrition seems to be worsening, particularly among children and women.

80. The rising costs of basic food exacerbate malnutrition and seriously jeopardize international efforts to achieve the overarching objective of the Brussels Programme to halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty and hunger in the least developed countries by 2010. Furthermore, the rise in costs risks destabilizing the political situation and triggering social unrest in countries, including 26 of the least developed countries, in which there is political instability. The global food crisis, caused by high oil prices, poor harvests as a result of extreme weather, change in diets in emerging economies and the production of biofuel, needs to be addressed immediately and comprehensively, taking into account both the demand for and supply of food.

81. On the demand side, energy consumption could be significantly decreased by adopting cost-effective, energy-efficient technologies in buildings, industry and transport, as well as carbon saving strategies which will enable the tackling of climate change, and securing the provision of sustainable energy.

82. On the supply side, the short-term strategy should include (a) provision of immediate humanitarian assistance to countries in food crisis, which requires scaling up international assistance and closing a US$ 750 million hole doled up by high food prices in the WFP budget; (b) social protection programmes, such as cash support, food-for-work programmes and school feeding programmes; and (c) financial lending and crop insurance schemes.

83. In the medium term, the prospects for supply rely on an increase in agricultural productivity by improving the access of farmers to finance and markets, enabling them to purchase the agricultural input (seeds and fertilizers), agricultural machinery and tools and other innovations for obtaining higher yields. Higher yields require better irrigation, transport infrastructure, electricity, investment in research and development and improvement of market information systems. A medium-term solution to the food crisis also requires rethinking the use of biofuel which accounts for between 10 and 30 per cent of the increase in global food prices. Higher food prices could reduce calorie intake by 4.8 per cent in Africa and 2.5 per cent in Asia

by 2020, according to various sources. Given its share in oil supplies and its critical role in the oil demand-supply balance, curbing the use of biofuels could push oil prices higher, increasing cost of transportation and fertilizers, two of the biggest components of agricultural costs which push food prices further up. Competition for grain can be reduced by producing biofuel from sugar (ethanol) or by the production of second generation biofuel from waste products (straw or wood).

84. In the long term, the state-led green revolution, through its extension, should facilitate the transition to a high-value agricultural revolution led by the private sector. Given its large share in the economy and large rural populations, agriculture has an enormous potential to reduce poverty in the least developed countries by improving food security, providing employment and income and improving the livelihoods of the poorest, particularly women.

85. The agriculture-for-development agenda calls for full trade liberalization which could significantly increase agricultural commodity prices and increase welfare gains for the least developed countries. It is, therefore, absolutely crucial that the Doha Round of trade negotiations be concluded urgently, and that trade be allowed to work for poverty reduction and sustainable development in the least developed countries.

86. Greenhouse gas emissions from agriculture (land degradation and deforestation) contribute significantly to total emissions. Reduction of deforestation, control of wildfires, efficient management of livestock waste and adoption of conservation agriculture could reduce the environmental footprint, while sustainable land cultivation, livestock and forest management, and efficient irrigation and watershed management, along with the development of crop varieties resistant to pest and drought, could increase the resilience of agricultural production in the least developed countries to climate change. Carbon trading schemes which provide financing for avoided deforestation and soil carbon sequestration also offer the opportunity to reduce emissions from agriculture.

87. Finally, the global food crisis provides an opportunity to address the issue of high fertility, especially in the African least developed countries. Slower population growth will reduce the pressures faced by the least developed countries in regard to food security, land tenure, environmental degradation and water supply. It will strengthen the human capital critical for sustained growth and sustainable development. Improving the access of women to education, health care and family planning, and overcoming gender inequalities and the cultural and religious traditions that perpetuate them are also crucial for addressing high fertility rates and high population growth.

Annex

Least developed countries: statistical data

Annex table 1
Economic growth and fixed capital formation

Least developed country	Average annual growth of GDP in constant United States dollars (percentage)				Per capita GDP in constant United States dollars		Per capita GDP in current United States dollars	Gross fixed formation as a percentage of GDP	Foreign direct investment, net inflows, as a percentage of GDP			Total population (thousands)	Population growth, per year (percentage)
	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2006	1990	2006	2006	2006	1990	2005	2006	2006	2005-2010
Africa													
Oil exporters													
Angola	-3.37	6.13	10.35	14.30	977	1 319	2 855	13	-3.3	-4.3	-0.1	16 557	2.78
Chad	4.29	2.69	14.95	2.90	252	428	634	23	0.5	12.0	10.7	10 468	2.88
Equatorial Guinea	8.83	33.88	26.63	-1.00	391	5 671	19 166	33	8.4	24.7	19.3	496	2.38
Sudan	5.11	7.57	6.80	12.10	615	1 218	934	24	-0.3	8.3	9.4	37 707	2.22
Subtotal (oil exporters)	**2.27**	**7.19**	**8.76**	**11.54**	**651**	**1 151**	**1 512**	**20**	**-1.63**	**4.96**	**5.99**	**65 228**	
Non-oil exporters													
Benin	4.21	4.84	4.10	3.60	356	415	536	20	3.4	1.2	1.3	8 760	3.02
Burkina Faso	4.71	4.66	6.21	5.90	352	491	416	24	0.0	0.3	0.4	14 359	2.89
Burundi	-2.11	-1.23	2.11	6.10	202	140	114	24	0.1	0.1	0.0	8 173	3.90
Cape Verde	5.21	8.36	5.25	5.50	868	1 557	2 153	39	0.1	1.7	10.7	519	2.23
Central African Republic	0.68	1.60	-0.95	3.20	431	335	333	6	0.0	0.4	1.6	4 265	1.83
Comoros	1.28	1.64	2.30	1.20	463	391	486	14	0.2	0.3	0.2	818	2.46
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	-7.25	-3.91	4.00	6.50	220	100	136	17	0.2	5.7	2.1	60 644	3.22
Djibouti	2.06	0.39	2.86	4.20	815	756	925	19	..	3.2	14.1	819	1.74
Eritrea	11.70	0.84	4.07	2.00	239	363	249	18	..	1.2	0.3	4 692	3.24
Ethiopia	1.09	4.68	5.60	10.60	213	259	164	20	0.1	1.9	2.7	81 021	2.51
Gambia	2.68	4.52	3.79	5.60	346	363	307	24	4.5	11.3	16.1	1 663	2.63
Guinea	3.90	4.24	3.08	5.00	467	559	311	19	0.7	3.1	3.3	9 181	2.16
Guinea-Bissau	2.76	-0.15	-0.23	4.60	229	166	196	16	0.8	3.3	13.8	1 646	2.98
Lesotho	4.00	2.89	3.02	1.60	386	512	725	41	2.8	6.4	5.2	1 995	0.63
Liberia	-22.55	35.07	-4.60	7.00	180	114	192	12	58.6	36.7	-13.0	3 579	4.50
Madagascar	-0.33	3.83	2.27	4.70	256	224	287	22	0.7	0.6	4.2	19 159	2.66
Malawi	7.72	3.86	2.42	8.50	185	277	164	8	1.2	0.1	0.9	13 571	2.57
Mali	3.68	4.47	6.39	4.60	327	446	498	18	0.2	3.0	3.2	11 968	3.02
Mauritania	3.45	2.54	4.03	14.10	540	644	899	29	0.7	6.3	-0.1	3 044	2.53
Mozambique	2.61	7.92	8.55	8.50	200	352	349	23	0.4	1.6	2.2	20 971	1.95

Annex table 1

Economic growth and fixed capital formation

Least developed country	Average annual growth of GDP in constant United States dollars (percentage) 1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2006	Per capita GDP in constant United States dollars 1990	2006	Per capita GDP in current United States dollars 2006	Gross fixed formation as a percentage of GDP 2006	Foreign direct investment, net inflows, as a percentage of GDP 1990	2005	2006	Total population (thousands) 2006	Population growth, per year (percentage) 2005-2010
Niger	0.74	3.75	4.57	3.50	320	295	247	19	1.6	1.3	0.6	13 737	3.49
Rwanda	-8.50	10.17	5.27	3.00	348	372	242	21	0.3	0.4	0.5	9 464	2.76
São Tomé and Principe	1.34	2.16	3.76	5.50	500	568	480	68	..	6.2	-0.4	155	1.61
Senegal	1.41	5.22	4.57	4.00	771	906	768	26	1.0	0.6	0.6	12 072	2.46
Sierra Leone	1.47	-10.23	12.77	9.70	230	206	318	5	5.0	6.9	4.1	5 743	2.04
Somalia	-7.20	2.10	2.86	2.40	148	106	283	20	0.6	..	..	8 445	2.92
Togo	-0.72	2.32	1.99	4.20	436	335	356	20	1.1	3.7	2.6	6 410	2.65
Uganda	7.46	6.45	5.91	6.20	205	339	346	24	-0.1	4.3	4.2	29 899	3.24
United Republic of Tanzania	4.00	4.08	6.85	5.90	179	254	335	22	0.0	3.6	3.7	39 459	2.47
Zambia	-1.33	2.72	4.76	6.00	461	458	938	25	6.2	3.6	5.4	11 696	1.91
Subtotal (non-oil exporters)	**1.07**	**3.89**	**4.96**	**6.39**	**270**	**300**	**302**	**22**	**1.1**	**2.8**	**2.9**	**407 927**	
Subtotal (Africa)	**1.41**	**4.91**	**6.27**	**8.29**	**323**	**417**	**469**	**21**	**0.5**	**3.7**	**4.3**	**473 155**	
Asia													
Afghanistan	-3.54	-3.44	12.60	11.10	286	196	319	17	..	..	..	26 088	3.85
Bangladesh	4.49	5.34	5.60	6.50	282	461	437	26	0.0	1.3	1.1	155 991	1.67
Bhutan	3.79	6.76	7.60	8.50	510	1 124	1 422	53	0.5	0.1	0.6	649	1.43
Cambodia	6.45	7.19	9.14	7.20	175	384	453	18	..	6.0	6.7	14 197	1.74
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	6.40	6.17	6.33	7.30	212	403	599	31	0.7	1.0	5.5	5 759	1.72
Maldives	6.75	8.35	5.04	21.70	995	2 310	3 020	56	2.6	1.3	1.5	300	1.76
Myanmar	5.84	8.48	12.80	7.00	129	417	281	15	..	..	..	48 379	0.85
Nepal	5.19	4.82	2.95	1.90	184	245	290	18	0.2	0.0	-0.1	27 641	1.97
Timor-Leste	4.49	-3.77	0.96	-1.60	242	171	319	17	..	..	..	1 114	3.50
Yemen	5.93	7.04	3.99	3.90	312	419	853	22	-2.7	-1.8	5.9	21 732	2.97
Subtotal	**4.41**	**5.53**	**6.70**	**6.42**	**241**	**406**	**427**	**23**	**0.1**	**1.1**	**2.5**	**301 849**	
Pacific													
Kiribati	4.56	5.62	2.87	0.80	389	574	801	43	..	..	..	94	..
Samoa	1.05	3.63	4.05	4.00	696	962	2348	10	5.9	-0.9	4.9	185	0.87
Solomon Islands	5.12	-2.60	1.49	5.00	662	545	860	19	4.9	6.2	5.5	484	2.33
Tuvalu	1.92	1.76	5.92	1.00	1 111	1 600	2441	56	..	..	..	10	..
Vanuatu	4.54	3.15	0.36	3.40	1 027	1 059	1635	21	8.7	3.6	11.2	221	2.38
Subtotal	**4.01**	**1.07**	**1.88**	**3.61**	**725**	**751**	**1 321**	**19**	**6.0**	**2.5**	**6.8**	**994**	

Annex table 1

Economic growth and fixed capital formation

Least developed country	Average annual growth of GDP in constant United States dollars (percentage)				Per capita GDP in constant United States dollars		Per capita GDP in current United States dollars	Gross fixed formation as a percentage of GDP	Foreign direct investment, net inflows, as a percentage of GDP			Total population (thousands)	Population growth, per year (percentage)
	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005	2006	1990	2006	2006	2006	1990	2005	2006	2006	2005-2010
Latin America and the Caribbean													
Haiti	-4.05	2.10	-0.55	2.30	368	249	489	29	0.3	0.6	3.2	9 446	1.58
Total	**2.38**	**5.09**	**6.36**	**7.52**	**291**	**411**	**454**	**22**	**0.4**	**1.4**	**3.7**	**785 444**	**2.37**

Sources: United Nations Statistics Division, *National Accounts Main Aggregates Database*, at http://unstats.un.org/unsd/snaama/introduction.asp (accessed 10 February 2008); World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2008* (Washington, D.C.), table 6.10, and *WDI and GDF Online*, at http://www.worldbank.org (accessed on 23 April 2008); United Nations Population Division, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision. Data online*, at http://www.un.org/esa/population (accessed 15 March 2008).

Annex table 2
Poverty and hunger

Least developed country	Population poverty rate (percentage) PPP (dollar) 1997-2004	Population poverty rate (percentage) National estimate 1998-2004	Population under-nourished (percentage) 2002-2004	Percentage difference, proportion of population under-nourished 1990-2004	Total population (thousands) 2006	Population growth per year (percentage) 2006	Refugees/ displaced population (thousands) 2006	Life expectancy (years) 2005-2010	Change in life expectancy (years) 1995-2010
Africa									
Angola	..	..	35	-23	16 557	2.87	61.70	42.7	1.7
Benin	31.0	29.0	12	-8	8 760	3.18	12.15	56.7	1.9
Burkina Faso	27.0	46.4	15	-6	14 359	3.05	1.27	52.3	2
Burundi	55.0	68.0	66	18	8 173	4.00	82.31	49.6	4.3
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	519	2.41	..	71.7	3.1
Central African Republic	..	..	44	-6	4 265	1.76	161.32	44.7	-1.4
Chad	..	..	35	-23	10 468	3.18	399.46	50.7	-0.9
Comoros	..	..	..	..	818	2.52	0.00	65.2	4.5
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	..	..	74	42	60 644	3.24	1 814.99	46.5	3.9
Djibouti	..	..	24	-29	819	1.84	9.28	54.8	1.6
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	..	..	496	2.46	..	51.6	3.4
Eritrea	..	..	75	..	4 692	3.65	6.66	58.0	4.6
Ethiopia	23.0	44.2	46	..	81 021	2.58	97.33	52.9	3.5
Gambia	59.0	61.3	29	7	1 663	2.84	14.36	59.4	3.5
Guinea	..	..	24	-15	9 181	1.98	35.36	56.0	4.5
Guinea-Bissau	..	65.7	39	15	1 646	3.07	8.12	46.4	1.5
Lesotho	..	68.0	13	-4	1 995	0.72	..	42.6	-13
Liberia	..	..	50	15	3 579	3.99	362.02	45.7	3.5
Madagascar	61.0	71.3	38	3	19 159	2.77	..	59.4	4.4
Malawi	42.0	65.3	35	-15	13 571	2.61	9.19	48.3	0.8
Mali	..	63.8	29	0	11 968	3.07	12.47	54.5	4.6
Mauritania	26.0	46.3	10	-5	3 044	2.73	30.36	64.2	3.8
Mozambique	..	54.1	44	-22	20 971	2.13	6.87	42.1	-4.2
Niger	..	..	32	-9	13 737	3.56	0.34	56.9	5.6
Rwanda	52.0	60.3	33	-11	9 464	2.49	59.11	46.2	10.1
São Tomé and Principe	..	..	10	-8	155	1.56	..	65.5	2.2
Senegal	..	..	20	-3	12 072	2.56	23.23	63.1	2.9
Sierra Leone	..	70.2	51	4	5 743	2.80	27.73	42.6	2.7
Somalia	..	..	..	..	8 445	3.03	403.74	48.2	4.4
Sudan	..	..	26	-6	37 707	2.19	1 622.22	58.6	3.2
Togo	..	..	24	-9	6 410	2.75	17.69	58.4	0
Uganda	85.0	37.7	19	-5	29 899	3.29	2 169.03	51.5	6.9
United Republic of Tanzania	58.0	35.7	44	7	39 459	2.55	485.68	52.5	4
Zambia	76.0	68.0	46	-2	11 696	1.90	120.47	42.4	2.2
Asia									
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	26 088	4.07	527.71	43.8	2
Bangladesh	36.0	49.8	30	-5	155 991	1.77	326.39	64.1	4.7
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	649	1.85	..	65.6	6.7
Cambodia	55.0	35.0	33	-10	14 197	1.73	0.30	59.7	3.2
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	27.0	33.0	19	-10	5 759	1.68	..	64.4	4.9
Maldives	..	..	10	-7	300	1.59	..	68.5	5.1
Myanmar	..	..	5	-5	48 379	0.86	728.00	62.1	1.8

Annex table 2
Poverty and hunger

Least developed country	Population poverty rate (percentage) PPP (dollar) 1997-2004	Population poverty rate (percentage) National estimate 1998-2004	Population under-nourished (percentage) 2002-2004	Percentage difference, proportion of population under-nourished 1990-2004	Total population (thousands) 2006	Population growth per year (percentage) 2006	Refugees/ displaced population (thousands) 2006	Life expectancy (years) 2005-2010	Change in life expectancy (years) 1995-2010
Nepal	..	30.9	17	-3	27 641	2.02	3 640.04	63.8	4.4
Timor-Leste	..	..	9	-2	1 114	4.38	166.96	60.8	6.4
Yemen	16 0	41.8	38	4	21 732	3.02	96.66	62.7	4.7
Pacific									
Kiribati	..	..	7	-2	94	2.17	..	..	..
Samoa	..	..	4	-7	185	0.63	..	71.5	3.1
Solomon Islands	..	..	21	-12	484	2.45	..	63.6	2.9
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	10	-4.22	..	..	..
Vanuatu	..	..	11	..	221	2.62	..	70.0	3.5
Latin America and the Caribbean									
Haiti	54.0	..	46	-19	9 446	1.61	0.00	60.9	4.2

Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2007* (Washington, D.C.), table 2.6, and PovcalNet, at http://iresearch.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/jsp/index.jsp (accessed on 1 March 2008); Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, *The State of Food Insecurity in the World 2006*, with 2006 updates from *FAOSTAT Database, Food Security Statistics*, at http://www.fao.org/faostat/foodsecurity/index_en (accessed on 1 March 2007); United Nations Population Division, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision, Data online*, at http://www.un.org/esa/population (accessed on 15 March 2008).

Annex table 3
Reproductive health and health services

Least developed country	Skilled health personnel at birth (percentage) 2000-2006	Women with antenatal visit to skilled practitioner (percentage) 2000-2006	Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000) 2000-2006 reported	Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000) 2005 adjusted	Contraceptive use, currently married women aged 15-49, any method (percentage) 1990-1995	Contraceptive use, currently married women aged 15-49, any method (percentage) 2000-2006
Africa						
Angola	45	66	..	1 400	8	6
Benin	78	88	500	840	16	17
Burkina Faso	54	85	480	700	8	17
Burundi	34	92	620	1 100	..	9
Cape Verde	89	99	76	210	..	53
Central African Republic	53	69	540	980	15	19
Chad	14	39	1 100	1 500	..	3
Comoros	62	75	380	400	21	26
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	61	68	1 300	1 100	8	31
Djibouti	61	67	74	650	..	9
Equatorial Guinea	65	86	..	680	..	..
Eritrea	28	70	1 000	450	5	8
Ethiopia	6	28	670	720	4	15
Gambia	57	98	730	690	12	18
Guinea	38	82	980	910	2	9
Guinea-Bissau	39	78	410	1 100	..	10
Lesotho	55	90	760	960	23	37
Liberia	51	85	580	1 200	..	10
Madagascar	51	80	470	510	17	27
Malawi	54	92	980	1 100	13	42
Mali	41	57	580	970	..	8
Mauritania	57	64	750	820	3	8
Mozambique	48	85	410	520	..	17
Niger	33	46	650	1 800	4	11
Rwanda	39	94	750	1 300	21	17
São Tomé and Príncipe	81	97	150	..	..	30
Senegal	52	87	430	980	7	12
Sierra Leone	43	81	1 800	2 100	..	5
Somalia	33	26	1 000	1 400	..	15
Sudan	87	60	550	450	10	7
Togo	62	84	480	510	..	17
Uganda	42	94	510	550	..	24
United Republic of Tanzania	43	78	580	950	10	26
Zambia	43	93	730	830	15	34
Asia						
Afghanistan	14	16	1 600	1 800	..	10
Bangladesh	20	48	320	570	40	58
Bhutan	56	51	260	440	19	31
Cambodia	44	69	470	540	13	40
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	19	27	410	660	19	32
Maldives	84	81	140	120	..	39
Myanmar	57	76	320	380	17	34
Nepal	19	44	280	830	23	48

Annex table 3

Reproductive health and health services

Least developed country	Skilled health personnel at birth (percentage) 2000-2006	Women with antenatal visit to skilled practitioner (percentage) 2000-2006	Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000) 2000-2006 reported	Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000) 2005 adjusted	Contraceptive use, currently married women aged 15-49, any method (percentage) 1990-1995	Contraceptive use, currently married women aged 15-49, any method (percentage) 2000-2006
Timor-Leste	18	61	..	380	..	10
Yemen	27	41	370	430	7	23
Pacific						
Kiribati	85	88	56	..	..	21
Samoa	100	..	29	..	..	43
Solomon Islands	85	..	140	220	..	7
Tuvalu	100	..	..	..	..	32
Vanuatu	88	..	68	..	.	28
Latin America and the Caribbean						
Haiti	26	85	630	670	..	32
Least Developed Countries	38	59		870		30

Source: United Nations Children's Fund, *The State of the World's Children 2008: Child Survival* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.08.XX.1), table 8.

Annex table 4

Universal primary education and gender equality in education

A. Enrolment

Least developed country	Net enrolment ratio in primary education			Ratio of girls to boys enrolled in primary education			Ratio of girls to boys enrolled in secondary education			Ratio of girls to boys enrolled in tertiary education		
	1991	1999/00	2004/05	1991	1999/00	2004/05	1991	1999/00	2004/05	1991	1999/00	2004/05
Africa												
Angola	50	..	..	0.92	0.86	..	..	0.82	..	..	0.63	..
Benin	41	52	78	0.51	0.69	0.80	0.42	0.46	0.57	0.15	0.25	..
Burkina Faso	29	36	45	0.64	0.71	0.80	0.53	0.65	0.70	0.30	0.30	0.45
Burundi	53	43	60	0.84	0.80	0.86	0.58	..	0.74	0.36	0.35	0.38
Cape Verde	91	98	90	0.94	0.97	0.95	..	..	1.07	..	1.00	1.04
Central African Republic	52	..	..	0.64	..	0.66	0.40	..	..	0.15	0.19	..
Chad	35	54	..	0.45	0.61	0.67	0.20	0.28	0.33	..	0.17	0.14
Comoros	57	55	..	0.73	0.85	0.88	0.65	0.82	0.76	..	0.73	0.77
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	54	..	..	0.75	0.90	..	..	0.52	..	..	..	..
Djibouti	29	28	33	0.72	0.73	0.82	0.66	0.66	0.66	..	0.89	0.73
Equatorial Guinea	91	84	..	0.96	0.95	0.95	..	0.60	..	0.14	0.43	..
Eritrea	16	41	47	0.94	0.82	0.81	..	0.69	0.59	..	0.16	0.15
Ethiopia	22	36	61	0.66	0.67	0.86	0.75	0.61	0.65	0.22	0.28	0.32
Gambia	48	67	..	0.68	0.85	1.06	0.49	0.68	0.82	..	0.29	0.23
Guinea	27	47	66	0.49	0.70	0.84	0.34	0.39	0.53	0.07	..	0.24
Guinea-Bissau	38	45	..	0.55	0.67	..	..	0.54	..	..	0.18	..
Lesotho	71	82	87	1.22	1.04	1.00	1.42	1.31	1.26	1.30	1.52	1.27
Liberia	..	66	..		0.73	..	..	0.72	..	..	0.76	..
Madagascar	64	65	92	0.98	0.96	0.96	0.97	0.96	..	0.82	0.86	0.89
Malawi	48	..	95	0.84	0.96	1.02	0.46	0.74	0.81	0.34	0.38	0.54
Mali	21	..	51	0.60	0.75	0.80	0.52	0.56	0.62	0.16	0.48	0.47
Mauritania	35	63	72	0.73	0.94	1.01	0.46	0.72	0.85	0.16	..	0.33
Mozambique	43	56	79	0.75	0.76	0.85	0.57	0.63	0.69	..	..	0.49
Niger	22	25	40	0.60	0.69	0.73	0.44	0.67	0.68	..	..	0.45
Rwanda	66	..	74	0.97	0.97	1.02	0.75	0.94	0.89	..	0.48	0.62
São Tomé and Príncipe	..	..	97	..	0.98	0.98	..	..	1.08	..	..	..
Senegal	43	54	69	0.73	0.87	0.97	0.53	0.65	0.75	..	..	..
Sierra Leone	43	..	..	0.70	..	0.81	0.57	..	0.74	..	..	..
Somalia	9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sudan	40	43	..	0.77	0.85	0.87	0.79	..	0.94	0.88	0.92	..
Togo	64	77	78	0.65	0.78	0.85	0.34	0.44	0.51	0.16	0.20	..
Uganda	..	..	..	0.85	0.94	1.00	0.59	0.77	0.81	0.38	0.51	..
United Republic of Tanzania	49	51	91	0.98	0.99	0.96	0.77	0.82	..	0.19	0.27	0.48
Zambia	..	63	89	..	0.93	0.95	..	0.81	0.82	..	0.46	..
Asia												
Afghanistan	..	..	..	0.55	0.08	0.59	0.51	..	0.33	..	..	0.28
Bangladesh	..	89	94	..	1.00	1.03	..	1.04	1.03	..	0.51	0.53
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cambodia	69	91	99	0.81	0.87	0.92	0.43	0.54	0.69	..	0.33	0.46
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	63	82	84	0.79	0.85	0.88	0.62	0.70	0.76	..	0.53	0.72
Maldives	..	96	79	..	1.00	0.98	..	1.08	1.14	..	..	2.37

Myanmar	98	82	90	0.96	0.99	1.02	0.98	1.07	0.99	..	1.60	..
Nepal	..	70	..	0.63	0.79	0.91	0.46	0.71	0.86	0.33	0.40	0.40
Timor-Leste	..	..	98	..	..	0.92	..	..	1.00	..	..	..
Yemen	51	60	75	0.35	0.63	0.74	..	0.42	0.49	..	0.28	0.37
Pacific												
Kiribati	..	97	..	..	0.99	1.02	..	1.61	1.13	..	..	..
Samoa	..	90	90	1.02	1.00	1.00	1.96	1.14	1.12	..	0.93	..
Solomon Islands	..	..	..	0.86	0.92	0.95	0.61	0.78	0.83	..	..	..
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	1.04	1.07	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	..	93	94	0.96	0.98	0.97	0.80	1.15	0.86	..	..	0.58
Latin America and the Caribbean												
Haiti	22	..	..	0.94	..	..	0.96	..	..	..	..	..
Total	52	60	73	0.79	0.87	0.89	..	0.81	0.81	..	0.66	0.63

Sources: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008, Education for All by 2015: Will we make it?* (Paris, 2007), tables 5, 8, 9A and 12, and updated data provided on 20 April 2008 by UNESCO Institute for Statistics (Montreal, Canada).

Annex table 4
Universal primary education and gender equality in education

B. Adult literacy

Least developed country	Rate of literacy in adults (over 15 years of age) Percentage literate 1990 Women	1990 Men	1990 Total	2007 Women	2007 Men	2007 Total	Change in gender difference (in percentage points), 1990-2007	Change in adult literacy (in percentage points), 1990-2007
Africa								
Angola	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Benin	16.6	39.9	27.2	27.9	53.1	40.5	-12.6	13.3
Burkina Faso	8.2	19.6	13.6	21.6	36.7	28.7	-8.0	15.2
Burundi	27.5	48.2	37.4	..	..	..	..	..
Cape Verde	53.0	74.8	62.8	78.8	89.4	83.8	-5.6	21.0
Central African Republic	20.3	48.0	33.6	..	..	..	..	..
Chad	..	..	12.2	..	..	..	..	..
Comoros	72.2	82.3	77.3	69.8	80.3	75.1	-5.3	-2.2
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Djibouti	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Eritrea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	18.5	36.0	27.0	..	..	..	..	..
Gambia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Guinea	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Guinea-Bissau	28.5	56.2	42.0	54.4	75.1	64.6	-10.6	22.5
Lesotho	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Liberia	29.7	52.1	40.8	50.9	60.2	55.5	-4.7	14.7
Madagascar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Malawi	33.5	65.3	48.5	64.6	79.2	71.8	-7.4	23.3
Mali	..	..	..	16.0	31.4	23.3	-8.1	..
Mauritania	..	..	..	48.3	63.3	55.8	-7.5	..
Mozambique	..	..	..	33.0	57.2	44.4	-12.8	..
Niger	..	..	..	16.4	44.3	30.4	-13.9	..
Rwanda	..	..	57.9	..	..	..	..	..
São Tomé and Principe	61.9	85.2	73.2	82.7	93.4	87.9	-5.5	14.7
Senegal	17.9	36.9	26.9	32.3	53.1	42.6	-10.6	15.7
Sierra Leone	..	..	..	26.8	50.0	38.1	-11.9	..
Somalia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sudan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Togo	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Uganda	44.8	68.2	56.1	65.5	81.8	73.6	-8.2	17.5
United Republic of Tanzania	48.1	71.4	59.1	65.9	79.0	72.3	-6.6	13.2
Zambia	57.4	73.0	65.0	..	..	..	..	..
Asia								
Afghanistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bangladesh	25.8	44.3	35.3	48.0	58.7	53.5	-5.2	18.2
Bhutan	..	..	..	42.2	67.1	55.6	-11.5	..
Cambodia	..	..	..	67.7	85.8	76.3	-9.5	..
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	..	..	..	66.6	80.0	73.2	-6.8	..
Maldives	96.1	95.9	96.0	97.1	97.0	97.0	0.1	1.0
Myanmar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nepal	17.4	49.2	33.0	43.6	70.3	56.5	-13.8	23.5
Timor-Leste	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Yemen	17.1	56.7	37.1	40.5	77.0	58.9	-18.2	21.8
Pacific								
Kiribati	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Samoa	97.4	98.4	97.9	98.4	98.9	98.7	-0.2	0.8
Solomon Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Annex table 4 (cont.)
Universal primary education and gender equality in education

Vanuatu	62.5	68.4	65.5	76.1	80.0	78.1	-1.9	12.6
Latin America and the Caribbean								
Haiti	45.9	46.6	46.2	64.0	60.1	62.1	2.0	15.9

Sources: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008, Education for All by 2015: Will we make it?* (Paris, 2007), tables 5, 8, 9A and 12, and updated data provided on 20 April 2008 by UNESCO Institute for Statistics (Montreal, Canada).

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Annex table 5

Infant and child health

Least developed country	Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000)			Infant mortality rate (per 1,000)			Percentage of one-year-old children immunized				Percentage of children under 6 months exclusively breastfed	Prevalence of moderately/severely underweight children under 5 years of age
							Measles		DPT3			
	1990	2004	2006	1990	2004	2006	2004	2006	2004	2006	2000-2006	2000-2006
Africa												
Angola	260	260	260	154	154	154	84	48	59	44	11	31
Benin	185	152	148	111	90	88	64	89	83	93	70	23
Burkina Faso	206	192	204	123	97	122	78	88	88	95	7	37
Burundi	190	190	181	114	114	109	84	75	74	74	45	39
Cape Verde	60	36	34	45	27	25	72	65	75	72	57	...
Central African Republic	173	193	175	114	115	115	91	35	40	40	23	29
Chad	201	200	209	120	117	124	80	23	50	20	2	37
Comoros	120	70	68	88	52	51	57	66	76	69	21	25
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	205	205	205	129	129	129	84	73	64	77	24	31
Djibouti	175	126	130	116	101	86	64	67	64	72	1	29
Equatorial Guinea	170	204	206	103	122	124	98	51	33	33	24	19
Eritrea	147	82	74	88	52	48	55	95	83	97	52	40
Ethiopia	204	166	123	122	110	77	60	63	80	72	49	38
Gambia	153	122	113	103	89	84	69	95	38	95	41	20
Guinea	235	155	161	139	101	98	36	67	69	71	27	26
Guinea-Bissau	240	203	200	142	126	119	59	60	80	77	16	19
Lesotho	101	82	132	81	61	102	61	85	78	83	36	20
Liberia	235	235	235	157	157	157	85	94	31	88	35	26
Madagascar	168	123	115	103	76	72	59	59	61	61	67	42
Malawi	221	175	120	131	110	76	54	85	89	99	56	19
Mali	250	219	217	140	121	119	70	86	76	85	25	33
Mauritania	133	125	125	85	78	78	78	62	70	68	20	32
Mozambique	235	152	138	158	104	96	40	77	72	72	30	24
Niger	320	259	253	191	152	148	56	47	62	39	14	44
Rwanda	176	203	160	106	118	98	97	95	89	99	88	23
São Tomé and Príncipe	100	118	96	65	75	63	87	85	99	99	60	9
Senegal	149	137	116	72	78	60	77	80	87	89	34	17
Sierra Leone	290	283	270	169	165	159	75	67	61	64	8	30
Somalia	203	225	145	121	133	90	90	35	30	35	9	36
Sudan	120	91	89	74	63	61	71	73	55	78	16	41
Togo	149	140	108	88	78	69	77	83	71	87	28	26
Uganda	160	138	134	93	80	78	73	89	87	80	60	20
United Republic of Tanzania	161	126	118	102	78	74	64	93	95	90	41	22
Zambia	180	182	182	101	102	102	91	84	80	80	40	20
Asia												
Afghanistan	260	257	257	168	165	165	80	68	66	77	...	39
Bangladesh	149	77	69	100	56	52	48	81	85	88	37	48
Bhutan	166	80	70	107	67	63	35	90	89	95	...	19
Cambodia	116	141	82	85	97	65	94	78	85	80	60	36
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	163	83	75	120	65	59	42	48	45	57	23	40
Maldives	111	46	30	78	35	26	56	97	96	98	10	30

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Annex table 5

Infant and child health

Myanmar	130	106	104	91	76	74	73	78	82	82	15	32
Nepal	142	76	59	99	59	46	51	85	80	89	53	39
Timor-Leste	177	80	55	133	64	47	25	64	57	67	31	46
Yemen	139	111	100	98	82	75	70	80	78	85	12	46
Pacific												
Kiribati	88	65	64	65	49	47	73	61	62	86	80	13
Samoa	50	30	28	40	25	23	75	54	68	56	...	...
Solomon Islands	121	56	73	86	34	55	78	84	80	91	65	...
Tuvalu	54	51	38	42	36	31	80	84	98	97	...	...
Vanuatu	62	40	36	48	32	30	74	99	49	85	50	...
Latin America and the Caribbean												
Haiti	152	117	80	105	74	60	64	58	43	53	41	22
Least Developed Countries	180	155	142	113	98	90	75	74	76	77	46	35

Source: United Nations Children's Fund, *The State of the World's Children 2008: Child Survival* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.08.XX.1), tables 1-3.

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Annex table 6

HIV/AIDS prevalence and prevention

Least developed country	HIV prevalence rate, adults aged 15-49	Rate of condom use at last high-risk sex				Condom use rate of contraceptive prevalence rate (percentage)	Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS, 2000-2006		AIDS orphans (one or both parents dead) (thousands)	Ratio of school attendance of orphans to that of non-orphans
		1998-2004		2000-2006						
	2005	Women	Men	Women	Men	1996/04	Women	Men	2005	2000-2006
Africa										
Angola	3.7	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	160	90
Benin	1.8 *	19	34	17	44	7	8	14	62	..
Burkina Faso	2.0	54	67	64	67	15	19	23	120	71
Burundi	3.3 *	..	..	25	..	1	30	..	120	86
Cape Verde	..	..	..	..	..	6	..	..	..	..
Central African Republic	10.7 *	..	..	41	..	3	17	..	140	96
Chad	3.5 *	..	..	17	25	0	6	20	57	105
Comoros	<0.1	..	..	..	..	3	10	..	..	59
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	3.2	..	..	..	..	7	..	..	680	72
Djibouti	3.1	..	..	26	50	..	18	22	6	82
Equatorial Guinea	3.2 *	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	5	95
Eritrea	2.4	..	..	..	..	8	37	..	36	83
Ethiopia	0.9 - 3.5	17	30	28	50	4	21	33	..	60
Gambia	2.4	..	..	54	..	1	39	..	4	87
Guinea	1.5 *	17	32	26	37	10	17	23	28	73
Guinea-Bissau	3.8	..	..	39	..	1	18	..	11	97
Lesotho	23.2 *	..	..	53	53	6	26	18	97	95
Liberia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madagascar	0.5	5	12	5	12	2	19	16	13	76
Malawi	14.1 *	32	38	40	47	5	41	36	550	96
Mali	1.7 *	14	30	17	35	4	9	15	94	104
Mauritania	0.7	..	..	..	..	10	..	..	7	..
Mozambique	16.1	29	33	29	33	5	20	33	510	80
Niger	1.1 *	7	30	18	37	0	13	16	46	..
Rwanda	3.1 *	23	55	26	40	3	51	54	210	82
São Tomé and Principe	..	..	..	56	..	0	44	..	..	109
Senegal	0.9 *	..	..	36	52	7	19	24	25	83

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Annex table 6
HIV/AIDS prevalence and prevention

Sierra Leone	1.6	a	..	..	20	..	2	17	..	31	83
Somalia	0.9		..	..	..	..	..	4	..	23	87
Sudan	1.6		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	96
Togo	3.2		22	41	50	..	6	28	..	88	94
Uganda	6.7	a	44	62	53	55	8	30	35	1000	94
United Republic of Tanzania	6.5	a	42	47	34	46	11	45	40	1100	102
Zambia	17.0	a	33	42	26	38	11	41	46	710	103
Asia											
Afghanistan	<0.1		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bangladesh	<0.1		..	..	..	..	..	16	..	..	..
Bhutan	<0.1		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cambodia	1.6	a	..	..	..	84	..	50	45	..	80
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	0.1		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Maldives	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Myanmar	1.3		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nepal	0.5		..	..	..	78	..	28	44	..	..
Timor-Leste	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Yemen	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pacific											
Kiribati	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Samoa	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Solomon Islands	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tuvalu	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	..		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Latin America and the Caribbean											
Haiti	3.8	a	19	30	29	43	..	32	40	..	86

Sources: UNAIDS, *2006 Report on the global AIDS epidemic* (Geneva, 2006), *07 AIDS epidemic update* (Geneva, 2007), and "Assessment of the epidemiological situation" (by country), at http://www.who.int/hiv/pub/epidemiology/pubfacts/en/; and United Nations Children's Fund, *The State of the World's Children 2008: Child Survival* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.08.XX.1), table 4.

[a] Estimate based on surveys completed in 2005. Estimates for other countries based on surveys in earlier years.

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Annex table 7

Malaria and tuberculosis prevalence, mortality, prevention and treatment

Percentage

Least developed country	Malaria					Tuberculosis									
	Reported malaria cases per 1,000 population		Reported deaths from malaria	Children under 5 years: Use of treated bed nets (percentage)	Children under 5 years: With fever receiving anti-malarial drugs (percentage)	Estimated prevalence of tuberculosis per 100,000 population			Estimated tuberculosis deaths per 100,000 population			DOTS[a]: Percentage of TB cases detected		DOTS[a]: Percentage of detected TB cases cured	
	1990	2000-2003	2000-2003	2003-2006	2003-2006	1990	2003	2006	1990	2003	2006	2003	2006	2002	2005
Africa															
Angola	26.1	106.9	11 344	..	..	514	304	344	58	27	29	101	76	74	72
Benin	20.0	122.0	670	20	54	140	141	135	15	20	18	81	86	80	87
Burkina Faso	55.7	114.9	4 417	10	48	337	349	476	50	53	71	16	17	64	71
Burundi	16.6	274.0	330	8	30	307	694	714	38	92	91	26	24	79	79
Cape Verde	0.2	0.3	..	..	..	413	397	324	46	44	36	..	33	..	64
Central African Republic	59.3	24.7	..	15	57	336	705	528	40	107	80	5	69	..	65
Chad	24.7	47.7	1 001	1	32	254	653	570	29	86	76	7	..	72	..
Comoros	..	5.1	16	9	63	186	106	86	15	8	7	28	42	96	91
Democratic Rep. of the Congo[b]	..	83.1	16 498	1	52	266	671	645	35	87	84	55	61	78	85
Djibouti	6.1	7.2	..	1	10	1484	1128	1300	122	124	139	46	40	82	80
Equatorial Guinea	72.3	31.3	..	1	49	176	564	404	19	77	54	..	..	..	..
Eritrea	..	17.4	78	4	4	231	191	218	20	19	22	53	35	82	88
Ethiopia[b]	..	8.0		2	3	307	646	641	37	85	83	31	27	76	78
Gambia	237.7	100.5	..	49	63	347	361	423	38	47	53	64	64	74	87
Guinea	3.6	109.5	441	0	44	254	416	466	29	49	56	51	55	72	72
Guinea-Bissau	80.5	134.6	780	39	46	403	341	313	39	42	40	52	64	48	69
Lesotho	..	..	..	..	..	254	527	513	30	92	88	73	79	52	73
Liberia	..	301.5	..	3	..	333	666	578	37	80	70	27	55	76	78
Madagascar	..	121.5	759	0	34	365	386	415	38	43	45	70	73	74	74
Malawi	409.3	240.4	6 993	23	24	321	347	322	75	119	111	39	42	72	73
Mali	27.5	62.2	1 309	..	..	715	589	578	80	71	69	22	26	50	75
Mauritania	13.3	59.6	100	2	33	576	691	606	63	80	71	..	34	..	55
Mozambique[b]	..	269.7	3 569	..	15	298	678	624	36	123	117	43	47	78	79
Niger	152.0	59.1	1 096	7	33	315	295	314	35	34	36	50	49	58	74
Rwanda	189.2	102.1	..	13	12	201	551	562	62	139	128	32	27	58	83
São Tomé and Principe	..	393.5	..	42	25	345	266	252	38	27	26	..	..	..	..

Annex table 7
Malaria and tuberculosis prevalence, mortality, prevention and treatment

Senegal	..	119.3	1 337	7	27	378	469	504	42	53	58	52	..	66	..
Sierra Leone	..	95.4	..	5	52	491	855	977	55	103	119	31	35	81	86
Somalia	..	2.4	10	9	8	795	348	293	114	57	41	63	83	89	89
Sudan	301.2	91.8	2 479	0	50	414	395	419	59	64	68	31	30	78	82
Togo	234.6	92.2	791	38	48	270	499	459	36	73	66	46	46	80	82
Uganda[a]	..	477.9	8 450	10	62	775	778	787	89	104	105	13	19	68	71
United Republic of Tanzania[b]	411.1	289.7	14 156	16	58	296	613	561	56	95	84	44	44	60	73
Zambia	235.8	..	5 763	23	58	636	659	568	100	121	102	63	53	83	84
Asia															
Afghanistan[b]	23.0	24.7	..	..	..	614	350	231	70	42	32	34	66	87	90
Bangladesh[b]	0.5	0.4	574	..	..	621	457	391	74	53	45	35	65	84	91
Bhutan	5.6	1.7	15	..	..	244	111	96	17	8	7	119	112	86	91
Cambodia[b]	12.7	5.0	492	4	0	915	702	665	119	101	92	62	62	92	93
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	5.3	3.3	187	18	9	476	324	292	38	26	24	48	77	75	90
Maldives	..	..	..	..	..	147	55	54	8	4	4	95	87	95	86
Myanmar[b]	24.4	14.5	2 476	..	..	411	186	169	50	24	13	76	109	81	85
Nepal	1.2	0.4	3	..	..	625	269	244	51	25	23	66	64	86	88
Timor-Leste	..	40.9	8	8	47	1206	822	789	125	101	98	43	33	81	82
Yemen	1.0	13.2	29	..	..	239	147	132	16	11	10	45	43	80	80
Pacific															
Kiribati	..	..	..	..	..	1162	471	402	115	54	45	63	82	94	93
Samoa	..	..	..	..	..	44	28	25	5	3	3	69	80	84	91
Solomon Islands	..	189.9	71	..	..	661	247	194	65	27	23	44	42	90	85
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	1150	653	504	106	62	55	..	29	..	100
Vanuatu	192.7	71.9	..	..	..	213	76	65	21	9	8	68	73	79	81
Latin America and the Caribbean															
Haiti	0.7	1.2	16	..	5	785	458	402	107	66	58	41	55	78	81
Least Developed Countries				32	33										

Sources: United Nations Children's Fund and World Health Organization, *World Malaria Report 2005* (Geneva, 2005), http://www.who.int/hiv/pub/epidemiology/pubfacts/en/; United Nations Children's Fund, *The State of the World's Children 2008: Child Survival* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.08.XX.1), table 3; and World Health Organization, *Global Tuberculosis Control 2008: Surveillance, Planning, Financing* (Geneva, 2008).

[a] Internationally recommended strategy for tuberculosis control.

[b] Tuberculosis "high burden countries", or designated by the World Health Organization.

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Annex table 8

Improved water and sanitation

Least developed country	Percentage of urban population				Annual growth rate (percentage)		Percentage of population with access to improved sanitation		Percentage of population with access to improved drinking water	
	1990	2000	2005	2007	Urban 2000-2005	Rural 2000-2005	Urban 2004	Rural 2004	Urban 2004	Rural 2004
Africa										
Angola	37.1	49	54	55.8	4.82	0.84	56	16	75	40
Benin	34.5	38.3	40	40.8	4.08	2.67	59	11	78	57
Burkina Faso	13.8	16.6	18.3	19.1	5.19	2.76	42	6	94	54
Burundi	6.3	8.3	9.5	10.1	6.10	3.01	47	35	92	77
Cape Verde	44.1	53.4	57.4	58.9	3.79	0.57	61	19	86	73
Central African Republic	36.8	37.6	38.1	38.4	1.86	1.49	37	12	93	43
Chad	20.8	23.4	25.3	26.1	5.17	3.12	24	4	41	82
Comoros	27.9	28.1	27.9	27.9	2.51	2.70	41	29	92	98
Democratic Rep. ofthe Congo	27.8	29.8	32.1	33.3	4.41	2.29	42	25	82	29
Djibouti	75.7	83.3	86.1	87	2.59	-1.66	88	50	76	59
Equatorial Guinea	34.7	38.8	38.9	39.2	2.41	2.30	60	46	45	42
Eritrea	15.8	17.8	19.4	20.2	5.88	3.72	32	3	74	57
Ethiopia	12.6	14.9	16.1	16.6	4.09	2.32	44	7	81	11
Gambia	38.3	49.1	53.9	55.7	4.97	1.13	72	46	95	77
Guinea	28	31	33	33.9	3.08	1.29	31	11	78	35
Guinea-Bissau	28.1	29.7	29.6	29.7	3.00	3.08	57	23	79	49
Lesotho	14	20	23.3	24.7	4.05	0.14	61	32	92	76
Liberia	45.3	54.3	58.1	59.5	3.65	0.52	49	7	72	52
Madagascar	23.8	27.1	28.5	29.1	3.82	2.44	48	26	77	35
Malawi	11.6	15.2	17.3	18.3	5.24	2.07	66	42	98	68
Mali	23.3	27.9	30.5	31.6	4.76	2.25	59	39	78	36
Mauritania	39.7	40	40.4	40.7	3.08	2.74	49	8	59	44
Mozambique	21.1	30.7	34.5	36.1	4.76	1.29	53	19	72	26
Niger	15.4	16.2	16.3	16.4	3.65	3.49	43	4	80	36
Rwanda	5.4	13.8	17.5	18	7.27	1.54	56	38	92	69
São Tomé and Principe	43.6	53.4	58.1	59.8	3.37	-0.39	32	20	89	73
Senegal	39	40.6	41.6	42	3.05	2.29	79	34	92	60
Sierra Leone	32.9	35.5	36.8	37.4	4.96	3.82	53	30	75	46
Somalia	29.7	33.2	35.2	36.1	4.13	2.41	48	14	32	27
Sudan	26.6	36.1	40.8	42.6	4.46	0.50	50	24	78	64
Togo	30.1	36.5	39.9	41.3	4.67	1.77	71	15	80	36
Uganda	11.1	12.1	12.5	12.8	3.94	3.08	51	41	87	56
United Republic of Tanzania	18.9	22.3	24.2	25	4.19	2.07	53	43	85	49
Zambia	39.4	34.8	35	35.2	1.99	1.81	59	52	90	40
Asia										
Afghanistan	18.3	21.3	22.9	23.6	5.26	3.38	49	29	63	31
Bangladesh	19.8	23.6	25.7	26.6	3.58	1.34	51	35	82	72
Bhutan	16.4	25.4	31	33.3	6.60	1.07	65	70	86	60
Cambodia	12.6	18.9	19.7	20.9	4.84	1.07	53	8	64	35
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	15.4	22	27.4	29.7	6.02	0.18	67	20	79	43
Maldives	25.8	27.7	33.9	36.6	5.62	-0.23	100	42	98	76

Annex table 8
Improved water and sanitation

Myanmar	24.9	28	30.6	31.9	2.68	0.15	58	72	80	77
Nepal	8.9	13.4	15.8	16.7	5.27	1.53	62	30	96	89
Timor-Leste	20.8	24.3	26.1	26.9	6.75	4.82	66	33	77	56
Yemen	20.9	26.3	28.9	30.1	4.91	2.24	86	28	71	65
Pacific										
Kiribati	35	43	43.6	43.7	2.09	1.60	59	22	77	53
Samoa	21.2	21.9	22.4	22.7	1.17	0.57	100	100	90	87
Solomon Islands	13.7	15.7	17	17.6	4.10	2.27	98	18	94	65
Tuvalu	40.7	46	48.1	49	1.38	-0.29	93	84	94	92
Vanuatu	18.7	21.7	23.5	24.3	4.09	2.08	78	42	86	52
Latin America and the Caribbean										
Haiti	28.5	35.6	42.7	45.6	5.28	-0.73	57	14	52	24

Sources: United Nations Children's Fund, *The State of the World's Children 2007, Women and Children: The Double Dividend of Gender Inequality* (New York) (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.07.XX.1); and United Nations Population Division, *World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision* (New York, 2008) and related database at http://esa.un.org/unup/index.asp.

Annex table 9
Communications

Least developed country	Permanent and mobile post offices per 100,000 population			Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population							Internet users per 100 population	
				Main lines			Cellular		Total			
	1990	2004	2006	1990	2000	2006	2003/04	2006	2003/04	2006	2004	2006
Africa												
Angola	1.3	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.6	6.7	14.3	7.4	15.0	1.2	0.6
Benin	3.7	2.2	2.0	0.3	0.8	0.9	3.4	12.1	4.4	13.0	1.5	8.0
Burkina Faso	1.0	0.6	..	0.2	0.5	0.7	3.0	7.5	3.6	8.2	0.4	0.6
Burundi	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.9	2.0	1.2	2.4	0.4	0.8
Cape Verde	17.5	..	6.9	2.4	12.6	13.8	13.9	21.0	29.5	34.8	5.3	6.4
Central African Republic	..	0.6	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.3	1.5	2.5	1.8	2.7	0.2	0.3
Chad	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.4	4.7	1.5	4.8	0.7	0.6
Comoros	..	..	2.9	0.8	1.0	2.1	0.3	2.0	1.9	4.1	1.0	2.6
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	1.0	0.2	..	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.9	7.4	1.9	7.5	..	0.3
Djibouti	..	1.4	..	1.1	1.5	1.6	3.4	6.4	5.1	7.9	1.3	1.4
Equatorial Guinea	..	4.2	..	0.4	1.4	2.0	11.0	19.3	12.7	21.3	1.0	1.6
Eritrea	..	1.5	1.4	..	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.4	1.4	2.2	1.2	2.2
Ethiopia	1.8	0.8	1.0	0.3	0.4	0.9	0.3	1.1	0.9	2.0	0.2	0.2
Gambia	..	1.2	0.6	0.7	2.7	3.0	12.0	26.0	14.6	29.0	3.4	5.3
Guinea	1.2	..	..	0.2	0.3	0.3	1.4	2.4	1.8	2.7	5.8	0.5
Guinea-Bissau	2.4	1.4	..	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.1	7.1	0.9	7.9	2.0	2.3
Lesotho	8.7	7.8	..	0.7	1.2	2.7	8.8	13.9	10.9	16.6	2.4	2.9
Liberia	..	..	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.4	4.9	1.6	5.1	..	...
Madagascar	11.8	4.2	3.9	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.9	5.5	2.2	6.2	0.5	0.6
Malawi	..	2.5	2.4	0.3	0.5	0.8	1.8	3.3	2.6	4.1	0.4	0.5
Mali	1.1	..	..	0.1	0.4	0.6	3.6	10.9	4.3	11.5	0.5	0.6
Mauritania	..	0.9	..	0.3	0.7	1.1	17.5	33.6	18.9	34.7	0.5	1.0
Mozambique	2.1	1.5	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.3	3.7	11.6	4.2	11.9	0.7	0.9
Niger	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	1.2	2.3	1.4	2.5	0.2	0.3
Rwanda	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.6	3.4	1.9	3.6	0.5	0.6
São Tomé and Príncipe	9.5	6.7	..	1.9	3.3	4.7	3.2	11.5	7.8	16.3	12.2	18.1
Senegal	1.8	1.2	..	0.6	2.2	2.4	9.9	25.0	12.2	27.4	4.7	5.5
Sierra Leone	..	..	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.5	2.3	2.2	2.7	2.7	0.2	0.2

Annex table 9

Communications

Somalia	..	..	..	0.2	0.4	1.2	4.2	6.1	5.8	7.3	1.7	1.1
Sudan	3.2	0.6	0.5	0.3	1.2	1.7	3.0	12.7	6.0	14.4	3.3	9.5
Togo	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.9	1.3	4.4	11.2	5.6	12.5	4.4	5.1
Uganda	1.6	1.2	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.4	4.4	6.7	4.6	7.1	0.8	2.5
United Republic of Tanzania	3.2	1.1	1.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	4.4	14.8	4.8	15.2	0.9	1.0
Zambia	5.3	1.7	..	0.8	0.8	0.8	2.8	14.0	3.5	14.8	2.1	4.2
Asia												
Afghanistan	..	1.7	1.8	0.2	0.1	0.5	2.4	8.1	2.6	8.6	0.1	1.7
Bangladesh	..	6.6	6.3	0.2	0.4	0.8	2.9	13.3	3.4	14.0	0.2	0.3
Bhutan	15.4	17.7	13.9	0.4	2.2	...	0.8	...	2.0	..	0.9	...
Cambodia	..	0.6	0.6	0.0	0.2	0.2	3.5	7.9	3.8	8.2	0.3	0.3
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	3.1	4.2	7.6	0.2	0.8	1.3	3.5	10.8	4.8	12.0	0.4	0.4
Maldives	13.4	74.2	71.7	2.9	9.1	10.9	34.5	87.9	44.1	96.8	5.8	6.6
Myanmar	2.8	2.8	2.8	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.2	0.4	1.0	1.4	0.1	0.2
Nepal	..	..	..	0.3	1.2	2.2	0.7	41.8	2.3	44.0	0.7	1.1
Timor-Leste	..	0.6	..	..	...	0.2	..	4.9	..	5.1	..	0.1
Yemen	1.8	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.9	4.5	5.2	13.8	9.0	18.2	0.9	1.3
Pacific												
Kiribati	33.3	..	..	1.7	4.0	5.1	0.6	0.7	4.6	5.8	2.4	2.2
Samoa	28.0	..	..	2.6	4.9	10.9	5.8	13.4	13.1	24.3	3.3	4.5
Solomon Islands	36.0	..	..	1.5	1.8	1.6	0.3	1.3	1.6	2.8	0.6	1.6
Tuvalu	..	..	..	1.3	7.0	8.5	0.0	12.4	7.0	20.9	..	16.2
Vanuatu	..	..	21.7	1.8	3.5	3.2	4.8	5.9	8.0	9.1	3.5	3.5
Latin America and the Caribbean												
Haiti	1.8	0.6	..	0.7	0.9	1.7	4.7	5.9	6.4	7.6	5.9	7.5
Least Developed Countries	1.6	2.3	0.9	2.1						10.8		1.1

Sources: Universal Postal Union, *Postal Statistics Database*, at http://www.upu.org (accessed on 1 March 2008); and International Telecommunication Union, Country data by region (online) and *World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators*, at http://www.itu.int/ITU-D/icteye/Indicators/Indicators.aspx (accessed on 21 April 2008).

Annex table 10
Transportation facilities

Least developed country	Roads				Railways				Air transport			
	Total road network (km)		Paved roads (percentage)		Route (km)		Freight (millions of tons per km)		Departures		Air freight (millions of tons per km)	
	2000	2004-2006	2000	2004-2006	2000	2004-2006	2000	2004-2006	2000	2004-2006	2000	2004-2006
Africa												
Angola	51 429	..	10.4	..	..	2 761	..	..	4 399	4 965	60.6	81.0
Benin	..	19 000	20.0	9.5	..	578	..	..	1 518	..	12.3	..
Burkina Faso	..	92 495	16.0	4.2	..	622	..	..	3 368	1 512	12.3	0.0
Burundi	14 480	12 322	7.1	10.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cape Verde	1 350	..	69.0	..	..	..	..	..	13 010	19 862	0.6	1.8
Central African Republic	24 307	..	2.7	..	..	..	..	..	1 518	..	12.3	..
Chad	33 400	..	0.8	..	..	..	..	..	1 518	..	12.3	..
Comoros	880	..	76.5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	157 000	153 497	..	1.8	3 641	3 641	513	444	5 200	..	..	..
Djibouti	3 065	..	45.0	..	..	781	..	97	..	..	..	..
Equatorial Guinea	2 880	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Eritrea	4 010	..	21.8	..	..	306	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ethiopia	29 571	39 477	12.0	12.7	..	..	..	..	26 624	33 644	78.3	157.2
Gambia	2 700	3 742	35.4	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Guinea	30 500	..	16.5	..	..	1 115	..	..	600	..	1.4	..
Guinea-Bissau	..	..	10.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lesotho	5 940	..	18.3	..	..	..	..	..	200	..	..	..
Liberia	10 600	..	6.2	..	..	490	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madagascar	49 827	..	11.6	..	..	732	..	..	20 491	14 142	27.3	18.8
Malawi	..	..	..	..	710	710	87	38	4 806	5 528	0.8	1.6
Mali	15 100	18 709	12.1	18.0	734	..	279	..	1 518	..	12.3	..
Mauritania	7 660	..	11.3	..	..	717	..	..	3 761	1 725	12.5	0.1
Mozambique	30 400	..	18.7	..	..	3 070	..	768	6 698	10 490	7.2	5.2
Niger	14 658	18 423	7.9	20.6	..	..	..	..	1 518	..	12.3	..
Rwanda	12 000	14 008	8.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
São Tomé and Principe	320	..	66.1	..	..	..	..	..	1 135	1 337	0.1	0.1
Senegal	14 583	..	29.3	..	906	..	371	..	2 415	0	12.3	0.0
Sierra Leone	11 330	..	7.9	..	..	..	..	..	202	171	9.0	9.6

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Annex table 10
Transportation facilities

Somalia	22 100	..	11.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sudan	11 900	..	36.3	..	4 599	5 478	1 164	766	7 753	8 839	36.5	51.0
Togo	7 520	..	31.6	..	..	568	..	..	1 518	..	12.3	..
Uganda	..	..	..	..	261	259	210	218	263	330	20.7	34.0
United Republic of Tanzania	88 200	..	4.2	..	4 582	4 582	1 990	..	5 973	5 068	3.4	1.7
Zambia	66 781	..	..	..	1 273	1 273	554	..	6 118	6 013	0.5	0.0
Asia												
Afghanistan	21 000	34 782	13.3	23.7	..	..	..	..	3 409	..	7.8	..
Bangladesh	207 485	..	9.5	..	2 768	2 855	777	817	6 313	7 971	193.9	190.8
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1 138	2 566	0.0	0.3
Cambodia	..	38 257	16.2	6.3	601	650	92	..	..	3 998	..	1.1
Lao People's Democratic Rep.	21 716	..	44.5	..	..	..	..	..	6 411	9 959	1.7	2.5
Maldives	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5 970	5 108	13.2	0.0
Myanmar	27 966	..	11.4	..	..	..	..	..	10 329	28 700	0.8	2.8
Nepal	13 223	17 280	30.8	56.9	..	59	..	..	12 130	6 920	17.0	7.2
Timor-Leste	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Yemen	65 144	..	15.5	8.7	..	..	..	..	14 608	18 843	32.0	66.1
Pacific												
Kiribati	670	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Samoa	2 337	..	42.0	..	..	..	..	..	10 877	12 752	2.2	1.9
Solomon Islands	1 391	..	2.4	..	..	..	..	..	11 481	13 883	1.0	0.8
Tuvalu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vanuatu	1 070	..	23.9	..	..	..	..	..	1 402	1 643	1.8	1.9
Latin America and the Caribbean												
Haiti	4 160	..	24.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators 2008* (Washington, D.C., 2008), table 5.9, and *WDI and GDF Online*, at http://www.worldbank.org (accessed on 23 April 2008), compiled by the World Bank from data of the International Road Federation, World Bank and International Civil Aviation Organization.

Annex table 11
Official development assistance, Development Assistance Committee donors

Country	ODA, net to the least developed countries (millions of United States dollars)				ODA, net to the least developed countries (as percentage of total)				ODA, net to the least developed countries, as a percentage of OECD/DAC donor gross national income				ODA for trade capacity building as percentage of total ODA		
	1990	2000	2005	2006	1990	2000	2005	2006	1990	2000	2005	2006	2001	2005	2006
Australia	171	293	419	451	17.9	29.7	24.9	21.3	0.06	0.08	0.06	0.06	2.1	1.1	2.3
Austria	106	113	245	252	63.0	25.6	15.5	16.8	0.07	0.06	0.08	0.08	..	3.4	2.2
Belgium	367	221	609	729	41.3	26.9	31.0	36.9	0.19	0.10	0.16	0.18	2.4	4.7	7.9
Canada	740	308	1 048	1 244	30.0	17.7	27.9	33.8	0.13	0.05	0.09	0.10	11.0	1.3	3.3
Denmark	462	537	814	878	39.5	32.3	38.6	39.3	0.37	0.34	0.31	0.31	0.7	..	6.1
Finland	317	112	245	296	37.5	30.2	27.2	35.5	0.24	0.09	0.13	0.14	1.1	3.2	8.4
France	2 286	1 144	2 392	2 624	31.9	27.9	23.9	24.8	0.19	0.08	0.11	0.12	1.2	2.8	3.9
Germany	1 769	1 212	1 884	2 642	28.0	24.1	18.7	25.3	0.12	0.07	0.07	0.09	2.7	2.1	0.6
Greece	..	19	79	103	..	8.2	20.7	24.2	..	0.02	0.04	0.04	..	0.0	2.7
Ireland	21	114	365	524	36.7	48.9	50.7	51.3	0.06	0.14	0.21	0.28	0.3	0.1	1.2
Italy	1 382	389	1 407	789	40.7	28.3	27.6	21.7	0.13	0.04	0.08	0.04	1.1	0.7	0.9
Japan	1 753	2 159	2 326	3 340	19.3	16.0	17.7	29.9	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.6	0.7	0.9
Luxembourg	10	46	106	123	39.3	37.6	41.2	42.5	0.08	0.27	0.35	0.38	..	..	..
Netherlands	834	794	1 658	1 395	32.9	25.3	32.4	25.6	0.30	0.21	0.27	0.21	2.9	3.4	4.6
New Zealand	18	29	70	74	19.1	25.9	25.5	28.6	0.04	0.07	0.07	0.08	10.8	10.2	12.5
Norway	532	427	1 029	1 129	44.1	33.8	36.9	38.2	0.52	0.26	0.35	0.34	4.1	3.3	2.9
Portugal	100	171	210	240	70.3	63.1	55.6	60.6	0.17	0.16	0.12	0.13	0.7	1.2	0.6
Spain	194	144	817	767	20.2	12.0	27.1	20.1	0.04	0.03	0.07	0.06	0.1	0.6	3.7
Sweden	775	532	1 101	1 152	38.6	29.6	32.7	29.1	0.35	0.24	0.31	0.30	1.0	2.6	1.6
Switzerland	325	270	405	453	43.4	30.3	22.9	27.5	0.14	0.10	0.10	0.11	6.2	11.1	10.3
United Kingdom	834	1 426	2 709	3 827	31.6	31.7	25.2	30.7	0.09	0.10	0.12	0.16	4.9	2.2	2.4
United States	2 199	1 989	4 661	6 416	19.3	20.0	16.7	27.3	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.05	7.3	4.5	4.2
Total	15 198	12 448	24 597	29 448	28.0	23.2	23.0	28.2	0.09	0.05	0.08	0.09	4.5	1.6	2.6

Sources: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development/Development Assistance Committee, *OECD Journal on Development: Development Co-operation Report 2007* (Paris, 2008), table 25, and *Database on Aid Activities*, at http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/50/17/5037721.htm (accessed on 1 April 2008).

Annex table 12
World Bank/International Monetary Fund debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, and public and publicly guaranteed debt service

Least developed country	Least developed countries in HIPC initiative and debt relief status with World Bank and International Monetary Fund, as at February 2008: Pre-completion point	Post-completion point	World Bank (millions of United States dollars, NPV)[a] Committed	Delivered	Percentage delivered	IMF (millions of United States dollars) Committed	Delivered	Percentage delivered	Debt service as percentage of exports by least developed countries of goods and services and income abroad 1990	2005	2006
Africa											
Angola									7.1	10.5	12.6
Benin		X	110.7	53.1	48.0	18.0	20.0	111.1	9.2	5.1	5.2
Burkina Faso		X	304.0	180.6	59.4	44.0	46.0	104.5	7.8	7.6	5.5
Burundi	X		444.5	29.5	6.6	19.0	0.0	0.0	41.7	28.4	10.8
Cape Verde									..	..	..
Central African Republic	X								12.5	..	..
Chad	X		85.4	41.1	48.1	14.0	9.0	64.3	3.8	0.9	1.8
Comoros									2.5	..	..
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	X		979.9	385.6	39.4	228.0	3.0	1.3	..	6.4	9.3
Djibouti									..	4.5	6.4
Equatorial Guinea									..	..	..
Eritrea									..	..	..
Ethiopia		X	1 022.7	213.3	20.9	45.0	47.0	104.4	37.6	2.1	3.7
Gambia		X	29.2	11.9	40.8	2.0	0.0	0.0	21.8	12.0	11.6
Guinea	X		198.7	79.4	40.0	24.0	5.0	20.8	19.6	13.4	11.3
Guinea-Bissau	X		122.3	34.8	28.5	9.0	1.0	11.1	22.1	4.4	7.8
Lesotho									4.2	7.4	4.0
Liberia									..	..	..
Madagascar		X	336.1	112.0	33.3	15.0	16.0	106.7	44.4	5.1	3.9
Malawi		X	739.3	129.9	17.6	33.0	37.0	112.1	28	8.9	8.3
Mali		X	241.6	139.6	57.8	46.0	49.0	106.5	14.7	7.1	4.3
Mauritania		X	131.0	48.5	37.0	35.0	38.0	108.6	28.8	6.3	5.6
Mozambique		X	564.5	553.4	98.0	107.0	108.0	100.9	17.3	3.1	0.8
Niger		X	306.8	78.8	25.7	31.0	34.0	109.7	6.6	4.3	2.3
Rwanda		X	475.0	101.9	21.5	47.0	51.0	108.5	9.9	7.4	3.5
São Tomé and Principe		X	40.0	8.2	20.5	1.0			28.7	48.1	19.0
Senegal		X	162.2	102.5	63.2	34.0	38.0	111.8	18.3	5.6	2.6
Sierra Leone		X	147.9	39.8	26.9	100.0	107.0	107.0	10.1	8.9	5.7

Annex table 12
World Bank/International Monetary Fund debt relief under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, and public and publicly guaranteed debt service

Somalia									..	..	..
Sudan									4.8	7.7	4.9
Togo									11.5	1.8	..
Uganda		X	692.4	380.5	55.0	120.0	122.0	101.7	78.6	9.8	5.8
United Republic of Tanzania		X	911.1	333.8	36.6	89.0	96.0	107.9	31.3	5.4	2.0
Zambia		X	647.0	177.8	27.5	469.0	508.0	108.3	14.5	6.6	2.2
Asia											
Afghanistan	X		71.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	..	1.8	1.8
Bangladesh									34.8	7.2	4.8
Bhutan									..	..	..
Cambodia									..	0.7	0.6
Lao People's Democratic Rep.									8.5	..	..
Maldives									4	6.8	4.7
Myanmar									18.2	2.2	1.4
Nepal									14.7	8.2	9.7
Timor-Leste									..	..	..
Yemen									7.1	3.0	2.7
Pacific											
Kiribati									..	..	..
Samoa									10.6	4.7	5.5
Solomon Islands									11.3	4.8	2
Tuvalu									..	..	..
Vanuatu									1.6	0.9	1.5
Latin America and the Caribbean											
Haiti	X		52.8	1.1	2.1	2.0	0.0	0.0	9.1	17.5	8.5
Least Developed Countries	8	17	8 817.0	3 237.1	36.7	1 532.0	1 335.0	87.1			

Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators 08* (Washington, D.C., 2008), tables 1.4 and 8.9, and *WDI and GDF Online*, at http://www.worldbank.org (accessed on 23 April 2008).

[a] Net present value (NPV) at end-2006, as calculated by World Bank.